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HINDUSTAN YEAR-BOOK
&
WHO'S WHO
1949

By
S. C. SARKAR
Author, Book of General Knowledge, Notable Indian Trials,
General Knowledge Geography, etc.

SEVENTEENTH YEAR OF ISSUE

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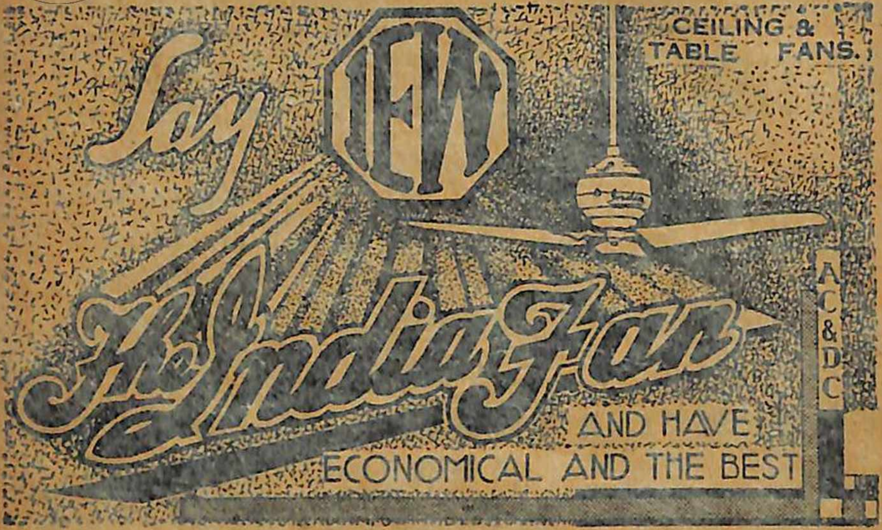

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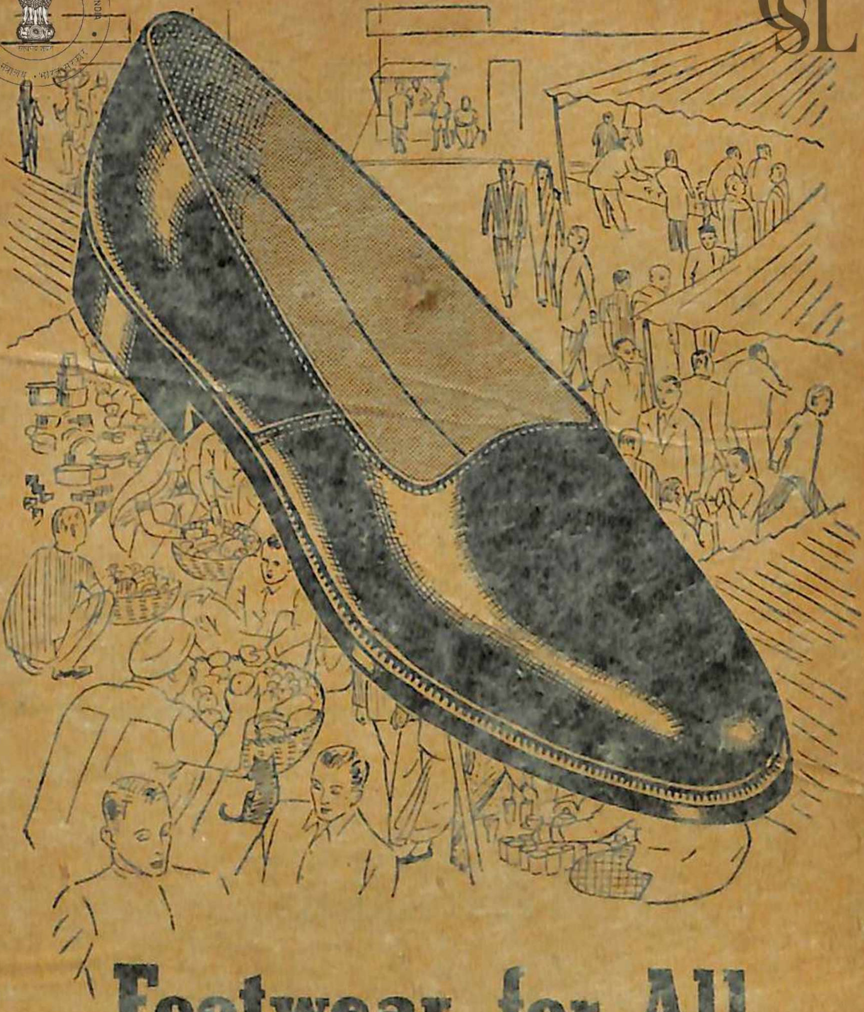

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HINDUSTAN YEAR-BOOK

THE CALENDAR

Indian Calendar—The *Samvat* era is popularly believed to have been established by Vikramaditya, the king of Ujjain to commemorate his victory over Saka kings and commenced in the year 57 B.C. Samvat is a lumi-solar year.

The *Saka* era is said to date from the king Salivahana prevalent in South India in commemoration of his victory over *Sakas* or Scythians, and dates from 3rd March, 78 A.D.

Bengali Year was originally a reckoning for agricultural and revenue purposes instituted at the time of Emperor Akbar. In A.D. 1555-6 corresponding to Hijri 962-3, solar computation was introduced to the muslim era Hijiri which became the *Fasli* or harvest era of northern India and was adopted as the current official era in Bengal.

Other Eras—the *Kali era* is computed from 3601 B.C. the *Buddha era* from 543 B.C. and *Chaitanya era* from A.D. 1485.

Mahomedan Calendar—The Mahomedan era is based on *Hijira* or flight of Mahomed from Mecca to Medina. The first day of the era is not the actual date of flight but 16th July, 622 A.D. *Hijira* is a purely lunar year consisting of 12 months containing in alternate sequence 30 or 29 days, with the intercalation of one day at the end of the 12th month at stated intervals in each cycle of 30 years, the object of the intercalation being to reconcile the date of the first of month with the date of the actual new moon. The mean length of *Hijira* Year is 354 hours 48 minutes and the period of mean lunation is 29 days 12 hours 44 minutes.

Modern Calendar—The modern calendar is based on the one devised by Julius Cæsar. He fixed the average length of the year at 365½ days as measured by the sun. Each year has 365 days with every fourth year as 'leap year' of 366 days. This so-called Julian calendar was modified by Pope Gregory XIII to correct an error of a few minutes in each year.

Jewish Calendar—is luni-solar; that is to say, the year is solar and months are lunar. In a cycle of 19 years the 1st, 2nd, 4th, 5th, 7th, 9th, 10th, 12th, 13th, 15th, 16th and 18th year have 12 months and the remaining years 13 months of 29 or 30 days each. The length of the ordinary year may be 353, 354 or 355 days and that of the leap year 383, 84 or 385 days; thus the mean length of the year over a 19-year cycle is just over 365 days. The years are reckoned from the creation of the world, the date of which is taken to be 3760 B.C. Thus the year A.D. 1938 is A.M. (*Anna Mundi*) 5698-99. The day begins at sunset for the purpose of observing the Sabbath and the various feasts and fasts. The time is 2 hours 21 minutes in advance of Greenwich time, being that of the meridian of Jerusalam.

Buddhist Calendar—It is reckoned from the death of Buddha in 543 B.C. (the actual date being 487 B.C.). The Buddhist year begins from Vaisaka Purnima.

Hindu Calendar—Hindus have employed luni-solar cycles made by the combination of solar years and lunar years so treated as to keep the beginning of the lunar year near that of the solar year. In some parts solar years are used while in other parts lunar is followed:

The solar year is divided into 12 months in accordance with the successive *Sankrantis* or entrances of the Sun into the (sideral) signs of zodiac. The names of the signs are as follows:—

Mesha, the ram (Aries).
Vrishabha, the bull (Taurus).
Mithuna, the pair (Gemini).
Korkata, the crab (Cancer).
Sinha, the lion (Leo).
Kanya, the maiden (Virgo).
Tula, the Scales (Libra).
Vrischika, the Scorpion (Scorpio).
Dhanus, the bow (Sagittarius).
Makara, the sea monster (Capricornus).
Kumbha, the water pot (Aquarius).
Mina, the fishes (Pisces).

But these are also known in some parts by another set of names preserving connection with lunar months—*Chaitra, Vaisakha, Jaistha, Asharha, Sravana, Bhadra, Asvina, Kartika, Margasirsa* or *Agrahayana, Pausa, Magha* and *Phalguna.*

The astronomical solar month runs from the moment of one *Sankranti* of the sun to the moment of the next *Sankranti* and as the signs of the Hindu zodiac are all of equal length, 30 degrees, while the speed of the sun varies according to the time of the year, the length of the month is variable.

The days of solar month begin with sun-rise. The days are named as follows: *Ravivara,* the day of sun (*Sunday*); *Somvara,* the day of the moon (Monday); *Mangalvara,* the day of the *Mars* (Tuesday); *Budhvara,* the day of Mercury (Wednesday); *Brihaspativara,* the day of Jupiter (Thursday); *Sukravara,* the day of Venus (Friday); *Sanivara,* the day of Saturn (Saturday).

The lunar year consists of primary 12 lunar months. It is of two principal varieties according as it begins with a certain day in the month of Chaitra or with the corresponding day in Kartika. The present names of the lunar months were derived from *nakshatras,* which are certain conspicuous stars and group of stars lying more or less along the neighbourhood of the ecliptic. The *nakshatras* are grouped in 12 sets of two or three each.

Chronological Eras

Name	*Began* B.C.		*Name*	*Began* B.C.	
Grecian Mundane Era	5598, Sept.	1	Era of Abraham	2015, Oct.	1
Civil Era of Constantinople ..	5508, Sept.	1	Era of the Olympiads	776, July	1
Alexandrian Era	5502, Aug.	29	Roman Era (A.U.C.) ..	753, April,	24
Julian Period ..	4713, Jan.	1			
Mundane Era ..	4008, Oct.	1	Era of Metonic Cycle	432, July	15
Jewish Mundane Era	3761, Oct.	1			

Name	*Began* B.C.	*Name*	*Began* B.C.
Grecian or Syro-Macedonian Era	312, Sept. 1	Augustan Era ..	27, Feb. 14
Era of Maccabees	166, Nov. 24	Christian Era A.D.	1, Jan. 1
Tyrian Era ..	125, Oct. 19	Destruction of Jerusalem A.D.	69, Sept. 1
Sidonian Era ..	110, Oct. 1	Mohammedan Era A.D. ..	622, July 16
Julian Era ..	45, Jan. 1		
Spanish Era ..	38, Jan. 1		

Names of months—January was named from *Janus,* god of entrances; February is derived from *februa,* a festival of purification held in that month by the Romans. *Maritus* is the Mars, who was originally a god of agriculture, his month being the one when crops are ordinarily planned. The origin of April is not known. May is named from *Maria,* the mother of Roman god Mercury. June is derived from Juna, the goddess of women and of marriage. July was formerly called quintilius from *quintus,* the fifth, but when Julius Cæsar reformed the calendar, he changed the month's name to Julius in his own honour: Julius became July in English. Similarly Sextilius, from *sextus* 'sixth' was named Augustus after the emperor of that name and became August. Those from September to December are so called from the numbers *Septem,* 'seven' *Octo,* 'eight' *November,* 'nine' and *Decem,* 'ten'.

Year—Unit of time is marked by the revolution of the earth in its orbit round the sun. The *solar* year is 365 days 5 hours, 48 minutes 49·7 seconds. The *Calendar* year consists of 365 days, with one day added every fourth year except years divisible by 100 and not by 400. Thus making the *solar year* agree with calendar year. A *Light Year* is an astronomical unit of distance—*c.* 5,884,000,000,000 miles which represents the distance light may travel in one solar year.

Time—It is based on the times taken by the earth to rotate on its axis (*day*); by moon to revolve round the earth (*month*); and by the earth to revolve round the sun (*year*); *Day* starts at midnight and is divided into 24 hours of 60 minutes, each of 60 seconds. The hours are counted from midnight up to 12 at noon and these hours are designated A.M. and again from noon up to 12 at midnight, which hours are designated P.M. The 24-hour reckoning ignores A.M. and P.M. and the hours are numbered 0 to 23 from midnight to midnight.

Local Time—when the system of local time is used, it is 12 o'clock (noon) at any region where sun is at its highest point in the sky, and shadows are cast in a line extending north and south.

Standard Time—is the system of time established by common usage or legislative action in any part of the world. Standard time is the local time of standard meridian, but used over an entire time zone.

International Meridian Conference held in 1884 in U.S.A. established the meridian passing through Greenwich, England as the prime meridian, from which world's time was to be reckoned. For every 15 degrees of longitude, east or west of Greenwich a time change of one hour results.

Time Zones—The 15 degree measurement divides Europe into three times zones—*Greenwich, Mid-European* (one hour faster), *East European* (2 hours faster). The United States is divided into four times zones—*Eastern, Central, Mountain* and *Pacific.*

Daylight Saving Time—Device to make more sunlit hours available for business, industry, leasure by setting all clocks forward one hour during summer, when sun rises early, thus saving evening use of artificial light. This device was first used as national economy during World War I.

Greenwich Mean Time—The International Meridian Conference held in 1884 established the meridian passing through Greenwich, England as the prime meridian, from which the world's time was to be reckoned. The world is considered as being divided into 24 zones each of 15° of arc, or one hour in time apart. The meridian of Greenwich (0°) extends through the centre of the initial zone and the zones to the eastward are numbered from 1 to 12 with the prefix 'minus' indicating the number of hours to be subtracted to obtain Greenwich time. The zones to the westward are similarly numbered, but prefixed 'plus' showing the number of hours that must be added to get Greenwich time.

International date line—is an imaginary line extending north and south through Pacific Ocean, and is the point at which the traveller must add or subtract a day from the calendar. On a journey westward across the Pacific, he must add a day (for example, by changing Monday, the 17th Tuesday, the 18th); when travelling eastward, he is required to set the date back one day, otherwise he will not be in accord with the local date when he returns to his starting place after making trip round the world.

Indian Standard Time—The Indian Standard time which is 5½ hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time was first adopted on 1st January 1906. It was based on the mean time of 82½°E longitude which passes through Benares and Cocanada. Though it was used by Railways and Post and Telegraph Offices, Calcutta had its own time 24 minutes ahead of it. During World War II, a uniform time 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time was adopted in India. India now observes Indian Standard Time, which 5½ hours ahead of Greenwich.

HOLIDAYS

Hindu Festival

Durga Puja—a national festival in Bengal. The celebration signifies the triumph of good over evil and the subjection of animal passions by human beings. It is also symbolical of womanhood's strength and power to combat all forms of reaction. According to *Puranas*, a demon, Mahisasura was threatening gods and men. Durga, the embodiment of Divine Power took human form and bearing weapons in her ten hands slew the demon. Hence the form in which the goddess is worshipped is that of a warlike figure having ten arms and riding astride a lion. The goddess descends from her heavenly home, the Kailash to visit her children on earth three days every year, accompanied by her two sons, Kartick, a Great Warrior, and Ganesh, the God of Prosperity and two daughters, Lakshmi, the Goddess of Wealth and Saraswati, the Goddess of Learning. On the fourth day, the immersion ceremony takes place and the image of the goddess is consigned to the waters. The tradition says that on the last day, Ramchandra of Ramayana offered special prayers to the Goddess and thus gained victory over Ravana, the Demon King of Lanka (Ceylon). Hence the last day of the Puja is known as *Vijaya* (victory) day.

Sivaratri—festival in honour of the Hindu God Siva, one of the Hindu Trinity. It takes place in the month of February-March.

Holi—Hindu festival in March. It marks the coming of the spring. The festival in general is held in honour of Krishna. The day is celebrated in great merriment and fun and coloured waters are thrown over relatives and other people. It is a great festival of North India.

Dewali—a great festival of lights held in October-November. The festival is celebrated by means of illuminations and fireworks. In some provinces Hindu mrchants begin their fresh account books. The legend says that its celebration began with the coronation of King Rama.

Ganesh Chaturthi—a great Hindu festival of the Western India, generally takes place in September in honour of Hindu God Ganesh who is represented with four hands and an elephant's head. After the worship the image is consigned to waters with big processions. This festival is also known as *Ganapati Day* or *Coconut Day*.

Dusserah—it is a great festival of northern India: it usually takes place in the month of September or October. The festival takes place in honour of the victory of Goddess (*Devi*) over the buffalo-headed demon Mahisasur. The festival takes place for nine days known as *Navaratri.* It also commemorates the victory of Rama over the demon king Ravana. In all important towns of northern India huge effigies of Ravana is made and burnt on the last day of the festival in great pomp and pagent.

Saraswati Puja—usually takes place in the month of Magh (January-February) on the fifth day (*Panchami*) of the new moon. This day, according to Hindus, heralds the advent of spring. Saraswati is the Goddess of Learning.

Christian Festival

All Fool's day—The first day of April, when from centuries throughout the christendom it has been customary to play irresponsible tricks on one's neighbours.

Arbor day—Annual tree planting day is generally observed throughout U.S.A. in parts of Canada and Great Britain.

Bank Holiday—In Great Britain a secular day when by law banks are closed, and parties are exempt from presentment or payment of negotiable paper.

Candlemas day—In its ecclesiastical meaning Candlemas is the feast of purification of the Virgin Mary and is observed on February 2. This festival is strictly kept by Roman Catholic Church.

Christmas—meaning Christ's Mass, is applied to the festival commemorating the birth of Christ celebrated on December 25. The exact date of Christ's birth is unknown. January 6 and December 28 however, were commonly chosen in the 4th century. The general adoption of December 25, first in the west and a little later in the east, dates from the 5th century.

Easter—The season which commemorates the death and resurrection of Jesus Christ is universally regarded as the chief of Christian festivals.

Good Friday—The Friday before Easter, celebrated in commemoration of the crucification of Jesus.

Halloween—The name of the popular, boisterous autumn celebration means 'holy eve', the occasion being the eve of 'All Hallows' or 'All-Saints' Day, November 1. It has the Pagan origin.

Lent—A word from the Anglo-Saxon *lencten* meaning "spring-time." It is employed to denote the forty days preceding Easter, the period observed in the Catholic Church as a fast.

St. Valentine's day—A festival which falls on February 14. The origin of the observance of this day is uncertain. Among the many interesting folk customs of medieval France and England, was a gathering of young people on St. Valentine's eve. 'Valentine' means sweetheart.

All Souls' Day—Day of prayer for soul of the dead.

Moslem Festival

Bakr-id—The festival commemorates the ordeal of Ismail and the miraculous way in which at the last moment Providence came to his rescue.

Abraham, called Khalilulla, or the friend of God, was put to a terrible test when he was asked to sacrifice what was dearest to him, and he decided to offer the life of his beloved son Ismail. As he was on the point of applying the knife to Ismail's throat with his eyes blind-folded it was revealed to him that this was meant only to test his faith and that he would, on opening his eyes, find a ram which he should sacrifice in the name of Allah.

It has also a symbolical aspect: the sacrificial animal standing for the evil in human nature, which must be continually surrendered at the altar of God. Held on the 10th of Zil Hijja in memory of Abraham's offering of Ismael which is the version of the Koran, camels, cows, sheep, goats, kids or lambs are sacrificed.

Muharrum—is a period of mourning in remembrance of the death of Hussain, the son of Ali by Fatima, daughter of Mahomed. Hasan, son of Ali was poisoned at the instigation of the future king Khalif Yezid in 49 A.H. and Hussain was murdered at Karbala on the 10th Muharrum 61 A.H.—9th October, 680 A.D.

Akhiri-Chahar Sumbha—held on the Wednesday of Safar when Mahomed recovered a little in his last illness and bathed for the last time.

Sabi-barat—(night of allotment)—held on the 16th Saaban when it is supposed that human deeds are measured and their meeds allotted.

Ramzan and Id-ul-fitr—Ramzan is the ninth month of the Moslem lunar year and is holy because the Qoran was revealed in that month. The fast is ordained in a magnificent passage of the Qoran. The fast springs from Qoranic instructions for the better communion with the God whom all men must honour and worship and that those instructions are obeyed by the faithful with the greatest devotion and loyalty. The period begins with the first sight of the new moon of the month or if the day be over-clouded and the moon invisible, on the completion of the thirty days from the previous moon. Each day's fasting must begin so soon as day-break permits a white thread to be discerned from a black thread and it continues till sunset.

Buddhist Festival

Full Moon of Vaisakh—is the most sacred day in the Buddhist calendar. On this day, under the spreading emerald canopy of the *Sal* tree in the beautiful garden of Lumbini was born of queen Maya, Prince Siddharta, the Buddha to be.

Ashada Purnima—is in commemoration of the first sermon of the Buddha at Saranath, Benaras.

Mulaganda Kuti Vihara—Anniversary (Kartick Purnima) is one occasion on which the Buddhists of the world assemble at Sarnath.

Vas Pavarna—(End of rainy season lent) is held in October.

ASTRONOMICAL INFORMATION

Solar System—Comprises the Sun and the various planets that revolve around it. The *Sun* is the domaint member of the Solar System. Its mass is 100 times the combined masses of all other bodies in the system. The sun's distance from the earth is 92,900,000 miles. The following are the planets that revolve round the Sun—*Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune, Pluto.* Besides these, there are large number of small bodies called minor planets or *asteroids.*

Elements of Solar System

Names	*Average distance from Sun (miles)*	*Average diameter (miles)*	*Periods of revolution in days*	*Diameter in miles*	*Distances (Earth = 1)*
Mercury ..	36,000,000	3,000	87·97	3,008	0·70
Venus ..	67,000,000	7,000	224·70	7,576	0·88
Earth ..	93,000,000	7,920	365·26	7,918	1·00
Mars ..	141,000,000	4,200	686·98	4,216	0·72
Jupiter ..	483,000,000	87,000	4,332·59	86,683	0·24
Saturn ..	886,000,000	71,500	10,759·20	72,332	0·13
Uranus ..	1,782,000,000	32,000	30,685·93	30,878	0·23
Neptune ..	2,793,000,000	33,000	60,187·64	32,932	0·29
Pluto ..	3,680,000,000	4,000	90,470·23	3,750	0·29

Sun—is an almost round body of fiery gaseous matter, averaging 864,000 miles diameter; its average distance from the earth is 92,900,000 miles. By the force of its gravitational attraction, the Sun keeps the planets in their regular orbits and pulls them with it through space at the rate of about 12 miles per second. The surface of the Sun has a temperature of 6,000 degree centigrade or 11,000 degrees Fahrenheit.

Earth—The circumference of the Earth is 25,000 miles at the equator. Though the Earth appears to us stationary; it is in fact spinning round on its axis once in every 24 hours and it spins from west to east. Besides spinning on its axis, the Earth moves round the Sun. The path of the Earth round the Sun called its orbit is not a circle but an oval or ellipse and the plane in which the Earth moves is said to be Plane of the Ecliptic. The time taken to complete one revolution round the sun is one year *i.e.,* 365¼ days approximately. The seasons are due to the changes of the Earth's position in the course of its revolution about the Sun and to the inclination of its axis.

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Other planets—*Mercury* is the smallest planet in the solar system. Its period of revolution around the Sun is 88 days; *Venus* has no satellite, but is otherwise much like the earth in size and mass and in having atmosphere. Its period of revolution around the Sun is 225 days. *Mars* comes closer to the earth than any other major planet at a time suitable for observation—within 35,000,000 miles at its nearest point. Its period of revolution around the Sun is approximately 686 days. *Jupiter* is the largest of the planets revolving around the Sun in about 12 years. Jupiter has at least nine satellites or moons. *Saturn,* a fluid and probably gaseous body takes almost 30 years to revolve around the Sun. Saturn is encircled by three transparent rings with thickness of between 20 and 40 miles. Like Jupitar, Saturn has at least nine satellites. *Uranus* discovered by Sir William Herschel in 1781 takes 84 years to revolve around the Sun. *Neptune* was discovered in 1845. Its period of revolution around the Sun is almost 165 years. *Pluto,* the most distant known planet of the solar system was discovered in 1930. It takes 248 years to revolve around the Sun.

Moon—is the only satellite of the earth, from which her mean distance is 239,000 miles, occupies an average period, in her revolution round the earth of 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes, 5 seconds; her diameter is 2,160 miles and her mean density 0·60. The moon shines entirely by reflected light.

Moon causes *Tides* by drawing the sea after it as the Earth spins. The highest tides called spring tides, occur when attractions of the Sun and the Moon act in unison. The Moon being closer to the Earth than Sun has the stronger attraction or pulling power, but Sun pulls the water also. It is when they pull together in the same direction that the highest tides occur (on New and Full Moon days). The longest or neap tides occur when lines joining the Sun and Moon to the Earth are at right angles to one another.

Asteroids—Are also called minor planets. They are of small bodies which revolve round the sun in orbits lying between those of Mars and Jupiter. About 2,000 have already been recorded. The largest is Ceras, 485 miles in diameter. They are probably the fragments of a large disrupted planet.

Comets—are astronomical bodies swinging around the Sun in a porabolic or elliptical orbit. A comet consists of necleus; the coma or gaseous envelope around the necleus and the tail, thought to be thinly scattered particles of dust sometimes millions of miles in length. A few comets travel in hyperbolic orbits, never returning, but most comets return over a period of years. The most famous are Halley's comet with a 76 year period.

Meteors—Meteors are small pieces of solid matter which appear in the earth's atmosphere as *shooting stars.* They glow because of the heat generated as they pass through the air. The majority of meteors are burned up long before they strike the earth's surface and those which reach the ground are known as *meteorites.* They are usually metallic.

Constellations—group of fixed stars named after a mythological person, animal, etc. It must have been earliest observers, several thousand years B.C. who recorded that the 'fixed' stars are not scattered uniformly over the sky but appear to be grouped into figures, now named constellations.

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This confines us to stars visible to the naked eye, and also excepts the Milky Way. The constellations covering the whole celestial sphere are divided into three groups according to the regions in which they are seen —the Northern, the Southern and the Zodiacal.

Satellites—The secondary bodies which revolve around the planets, as the planets revolve around the sun, are called satellites. With the exception of Mercury and Venus, all of the planets are accompanied by one or more satellites. Earth has one satellite, moon; Mars has two; Jupiter nine; Saturn, ten; Uranus, four; and Neptune, one.

Stars—are luminous heavenly bodies, so far distant from the solar system that the light from the nearest star travelling at the speed of 186,000 miles per second, takes four years to reach the earth. Unlike the planets, the stars shine by their own light. The total number of stars is probably in the neighbourhood of three to four billion; of this number 6,000 are visible without the aid of telescope. The stars 'twinkle' as we gaze at them. This twinkling is caused by refraction through the earth's atmosphere.

Auroras—The *aurora borealis* (northern lights) and *aurora australis* (southern lights) are luminous atmospheric phenomena which occur in the Arctic and Antarctic regions respectively. The auroras are now attributed to a discharge of electricity through the thin atmosphere that exists in the area from 50 to 100 miles above the earth. The resultant display is of great beauty and takes the form of bands, rays, arcs, patches and clouds which range in colour from a silvery white to yellow, green, violet and red. The shapes and directions assumed by the auroras indicate that they are affected by the magnetic field of the earth.

Milky Way—*Milky Way* is a hazy, somewhat irregular band of light, about 20" wide which completely encircles the heavens. It can be seen on clear, moonless, summer evenings stretching entirely across the northern sky.

Atmosphere—The atmosphere is composed a mixture of gases and surrounds or envelopes the whole earth. It is sometimes likened to a great sea of gases, at the bottom of which we live. The principal constituants are oxygen and nitrogen in about the proportion of 21 per cent of the former and 78 per cent of the latter by volume, the remaining one per cent being made up of five other gases. Water vapour is always present in the lower atmosphere, but in a variable quantity. It occupies space independently of the other gases and may comprise up to 3 per cent of the total weight of a given volume of air.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL INFORMATION

RACES OF MANKIND

Homo Sapiens—Classification of human into society races is more or less artificial, for it is now an accepted fact that all peoples belong to the same genus and species.

Method of Classification—Scientists clasify man by using number of physical traits, such as stature, headform, skin colour, hair colour, form and texture, eye colour, nose shape, mouth form, shape of face with special reference of cheek-bones, arm and leg proportions, etc.

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Hair classification—Some ethnologists divide mankind into three kinds—*Wooly hair, wavy hair, straight hair.*

Colour classification—Some ethnologists classify mankind like this—*Whites, Yellow-Brown* and *Blacks.*

Group classification—The human family has been divided into five races—*Caucasian, Mongolian, Negro, American* and *Malay*

The Caucasian or Indo-European Race (White) comprises the natives of Europe, the Persians, Jews, Arabians, Hindus, Afghans, and the people of Northern Africa; also the descendants of Europeans in America, South Africa, Australia, etc.

The Mongolian Race (Yellow) consists of the Chinese, Japanese, Siamese, Burmese, Tibetans and Koreans. Also the Laplanders, Finns, Magyars (Hungary), Tartars, Turks and many Russians, Eskemos, Indians of America.

The Negro Race (Black) is characterised by a broad and flat nose, thick lips, straight eyes, protruding jaw, kinkly hair, and dark skin varying in degrees of brownness and is composed of the natives of Africa and Oceania. They are chiefly found in West Africa, Sudan in Central Africa etc., and in Bornea, Solomons, Hebrides and Fiji.

Malay (Brown) includes the natives of Australia, Tasmania and some of the Malayan Islands.

Stages of Civilisation of Man

Stone Age—Age of human development in which primitive man was using stone implements and weapons. The Stone Age preceded the ages of bronze and iron. It is usually divided into four periods—(1) *Aolithic* or dawn of the stone age which lasted 6,000,000 years; (2) *Paleolithic*, or old stone age lasting perhaps 400,000 to 100,000 B.C. in which weapons and sharp stone tools were made from hard stone (flint) by chipping; (3) *Mesolithic*, a traditional period intermediate between the old and new stone ages, lasting perhaps until 10,000 B.C. when arrow and spear-heads were made and (4) the *Neolithic* or New stone age in which tools were perfected by grinding and polishing the stone. The new stone age lasted in Europe for some 5,000 years. In different parts of the world, the stone age existed at different times. Fire was probably discovered some 60,000 years before Christ.

Bronze Age—The period when early man used bronze for his tools and weapons, this superseding the use of stone. Its date differs in various areas. In the East it begin probably about 5,000 B.C. and in the West perhaps 2,000 B.C. and continued until about 1,000 B.C.

Iron Age—The cultural phase of human civilisation marked by the use of iron specially for edged tools and weapons. In Europe and West Asia it usually followed the copper-using or bronze-using phase or age; in Africa it directly succeeded the stone age. In Europe, iron working became general in the Mediterranean region about 1,000 B.C. subsequently two pre-Christian periods occurred, each of about 500 years.

Pre-historic Races

Pithecanthropus erectus (erect ape-man or Java man)—This is generally believed to be the earliest manlike animal. Held to be a creature of

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pleistocene time about mid-way between the orang-utan and man, (1891-1892).

Sinanthropas pekinensis (Peking man)—Of higher development than Java man, but of approximately same period. Fosilized remains of 10 individuals were found in a cave about 40 miles from Pekin between 1926 and 1930. The brain capacity is estimated to be about one-fourth larger than that of Java man.

Australopithecus Africans (erect man-ape)—A skull was found in Cape Colony in 1925.

Hemo Heidelbergensis (Heidelberg man)—Primitive man of pleistocene period discovered in Heidelberg Germany (1907). The jaw-bone is manlike, although it bears no trace of a chin. The teeth which are remarkably well-preserved, are unmistakably of human type.

Piltdown skull (Eoanthropus or primitive man)—Primitive man of early palaeolithic times found in Piltdown, Sussex (1912).

Neanderthal Man—Oldest known dolichocephalic (long-headed) race in Europe, living about 50,000 years before Christian era. Human remains were first discovered in 1857 near Dusseldorf, Germany, in Neanderthal, after which this type of human beings has been named.

Homo primigenius—Of last palæolithic times from 35,000 to 15,00 B.C. (1895-1906).

Note—Figures in parenthesis denote years in which discoveries were made.

GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

WORLD

	Area in sq. miles.	*Estimated Population.*		*Area in sq. miles.*	*Estimated Population.*
Europe	1,910,138	389,801,037	North America	8,664,860	174,202,223
Asia	10,347,491	1,067,222,353	South America	6,937,551	83,855,189
U.S.S.R.	8,473,464	211,384,985	Oceania	3,301,158	76,594,066
Africa	11,710,424	147,900,000			
			World	51,345,086	2,150,959,919

LONGEST RIVERS

	Miles long		*Miles long*
Missouri-Mississippi (U.S.A.)	4,502	Obe (Asia)	2,700
Amazon (S.A.)	4,194	Amur (Asia)	2,500
Nile (Africa)	3,600	Mekong (Asia)	2,800
Yangtse (Asia)	3,400	Hoang-Ho (Asia)	2,600
Yenesei (Asia)	3,300	Mackenzie (Canada)	2,514
Congo (Africa)	3,000	Volga (Europe)	2,450
Niger (Africa)	3,000	Yokon	2,000
Lena (Asia)	2,800		

HIGHEST MOUNTAINS

	ft.		ft.
Everest (Nepal-Tibet) ..	29,002	Chimborazo (America) ..	20,702
K2 (India)	28,250	McKinley (America) ..	20,300
Kanchenjanga (Nepal-India)	28,146	Mt. Elias (America) ..	19,500
Makalu (Nepal-Tibet) ..	27,790	Cotopaxi (Equador) ..	19,580
Dhaulagiri (Nepal) ..	26,795	Kilimanjaro (Africa) ..	19,710
Nanga Parvat (India) ..	26,620	Elburz (Europe) ..	18,465
Nanda Devi (India) ..	25,645	Demavend (Iran) ..	18,464
Mt. Kamet (India) ..	25,446	Papocatepetl (Mexico) ..	17,540
Illampu (America) ..	25,248	Kenya (Africa)	17,040
Aconcagua (America) ..	22,843	Mount Blanc (Europe) ..	15,782

OCEANS

	Area		Area
Pacific	68,634,000	Antarctic	7,500,000
Atlantic	41,322,000	Arctic	5,440,000
Indian	28,350,000		

SEAS

	Areas		Areas
Mediterranean	1,145,000	Japan Sea	472,000
Bering Sea	878,000	Andaman	300,000
Caribbean Sea	750,000	North Sea	200,000
Okhotsk Sea	580,000	Red Sea	178,000
East China Sea	482,000	Caspian Sea	169,000
Yellow Sea	480,000	Black Sea	164,000
Hudson Bay	372,000		

HIGHEST MOUNTAIN PEAKS

Mt. Peak	*Range*	*Height feet*	*Mt. Peak*	*Range*	*Height feet*
Everest	Himalayas	29,002	Tirich Mir	Hindukush	25,263
Godwin Austen (K2)	Do.	28,250	Trisul	Himalayas	23,360
			Aconcagua	Andes	22,843
Kanchanjunga	Do.	28,146	Chimborozo	Andes	20,702
Curla Mandhata	Do.	25,355	McKenley	Alaska	20,300

HIGHEST AND LOWEST ALTITUDES

	Hight. Pt.	*ft.*	*Lowest Pt.*	*Below Sea level*
			Seal level	..
N. America ..	Mt. McKinley ..	20,300	Death Valley (California)	280
S. America ..	Mt. Aconcagua ..	22,845		
Europe ..	Mt. Elburz ..	18,465	Caspian Sea ..	86
Asia ..	Everest ..	29,002	Dead Sea	1,290
Oceanea ..	Kosciusko ..	7,328	Lake Eyre (S. Auslia)	38
Africa ..	Kilimanjaro ..	19,710		
Antarctica ..	Thorvald Nelson	15,410	Libyan Desert ..	440

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LARGEST LAKES

	Sq. Miles		Miles Sq.
Superior (U.S.-Canada) ..	31,820	Tanganyika (Cen. Africa)	12,700
Victoria (E. Africa) ..	26,200	Great Bear Lake (Canada)	11,200
Aral (Asiatic Russia) ..	24,400	Great Slave Lake (Canada)	11,172
Huron (U.S.-Canada) ..	23,010	Lake Nayasa (S.E. Africa)	11,000
Michigan (U.S.A.) ..	22,400	Erie (U.S.-Canada) ..	9,940
Baikal (S. Sibera) ..	13,300		

VOLCANOES

	ft.		ft.
Chimbrozo, Equador ..	20,702	Hualalai, Hawii	8,275
Cotopaxi, Equador	19,550	Skaptar Jokul Iceland ..	6,952
Sangay, Equador	17,464	Hekla, Iceland	5,110
Mauna Kea, Hawaii ..	13,784	Vesuvious, Italy	4,700
Mouna Loa, Hawaii ..	13,300	Stromboli, Lipari Isles ..	3,022
Fuji, Japan	12,044	Popocatepetl, Mexico ..	17,520
Etna, Sicily	17,740	Kilauea, Hawaii	4,100
Iliamna, Aleutian Isles ..	11,000		

LARGEST ISLANDS

	Sq. Miles		Sq. Miles
Greenland N. Atlantic ..	839,782	Celebes, Indian	72,679
New Guinea, Pacific ..	330,000	Java, Indian	48,400
Borneo, Pacific	284,630	Cuba, Atlantic	42,734
Baffinland, Arctic ..	236,000	Newfounland, Atlantic ..	41,634
Madagascar, Indian ..	224,721	Luzon (Philippines), Pacific	40,814
Sumatra, Indian	163,534	Iceland, Atlantic	39,709
New Zealand (N. & S.) ..	103,934	Mindanao (Philippines)	36,906
Great Britain, Atlantic ..	88,745	Ireland, Atlantic	32,600
Honshu (Japan), Pacific	87,500	Ceylon, Indian Ocean ..	25,400
Victoria, Arctic Ocean ..	74,000	Sakhalin, U.S.S.R. ..	24,560

PRINCIPAL DESERTS

	Sq. miles		Sq. miles
Gobi (Mongolia, Asia) ..	300,000		
Sahara (Africa)	3,000,000	Great Arabian (most of Arabia)	m. long 1.500
Kalahari (South Africa)	120,000		
Tibet (Asia)	230,000	Aatacama (N. Chile) ..	m. long 400 m. long
Talka Makan (Eastern Turkestan in Tarim Basin)	700		

GEOGRAPHICAL SURNAMES

Island of Pearls—Baherein (Persian Gulf).

World's lonliest island—Tristan De Cunha (Mid-Atlantic).

Roof of the World—Pamir Plateau.

Eternal City—Rome.

Gift of the Nile—Egypt.

Land of the Midnight Sun—Norway.

Holy Land—Palestine.
Hermit Kingdom—Korea.
Island of Cloves—Zanzibar.
Land of White Elephant—Siam.
Empire City—New York.
Pillars of Harcules—Strait of Gibraltar.
Key of the Mediterranean—Gibraltar.
Rose-pink City—Jaipur.
Blue Mountains—Nilgiri Hills.
Venice of the North—Stockholm.
Forbidden City—Lhasa.
Land of Cakes—Scotland.
Windy City—Chicago.
China's Sorrow—Hoang Ho.
Gate of tears—Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb.
Pearl of the Antilles—Cuba.
The Corridor—A strip of land in Poland separating Germany from East Prussia.
Granite City—Aberdeen
Land of Morning Calm—Korea.
Playground of Europe—Switzerland.
City of Seven Hills—Rome.
Land of Rising Sun—Japan.
Dark Continent—Africa.
Emerald Isle—Ireland.
Land of Maple—Canada.
Land of Five Rivers—The Punjab.
Gateway of India—Bombay.
City of Palaces—Calcutta.
Land of Golden Fleece—Australia.
City of Sky-Scrapers—New York.
Cockpit of Europe—The Balkans.
Land of Thousand Islands—Finland.
City of Magnificent Distances—Washington D.C.
Bengal's sorrow—Damodar.
Never Never Land—Vast prairies of northern Australia.
Queen of the Adriatic—Venice.
The Down Under—Australia.

COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD IN VARIOUS RICHES AND NATURAL RESOURCES

(In order of merit: 1, 2, 3)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Coal	U.S.A.	United Kingdom	Germany
Crude Petroleum	U.S.A.	Venezuela	U.S.S.R.
Copper	U.S.A.	Chili	Canada
Iron Ore	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.	United Kingdom
Tin	Bolivia	Belgian Congo	Nigeria
Gold	South Africa	Canada	South America
Silver	Mexico	U.S.A.	Peru
Chromite	U.S.S.R.	Southern Rodesia	Turkey
Lead	U.S.A.	Mexico	Australia
Cultivation of Land	U.S.S.R.	U.S.A.	India
Meat	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.	Argentina
Cattle	India	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.
Wood	Australia	Argentina	New Zealand
Cotton	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.	India
Wheat	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.	China
Rice	China	India	Japan
Cane Sugar ..	India	Cuba	Brazil
Rubber	U.S.A.	Malaya	Fr. Indo-China
Steel	U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.	United Kingdom
Motor Vehicles ..	U.S.A.	United Kingdom	France

LONGEST TUNNELS

	miles		miles
Tanna, *Japan*	13½	St. Gothard, *Swiss-Italian Frontier*	9½
Simplon, *Swiss Italian Frontier*	12¼	Mont Cenis, *France*	8
Appennines	11½	Arlberg, *Tyrol*	6½
Loetschbeg, *Switzerland* ..	9¼		

OCEAN ROUTES OF THE WORD

1. **North Atlantic Route**—carries greatest traffic of all ocean routes. This route connects ports of Western Europe with those of east coast of North America.

2. **Panama Route**—This route connects the Pacific with Atlantic. Panama Canal serves mainly the eastern coast of the U. S. A. in its trade relation with Australia, New Zealand, Japan, China and western parts of South America and North America.

3. **Suez Canal Route**—most important trade route of the world. After crossing Red Sea, the route follows two directions—one along the eastern coast of Africa to Durban and another to further east to India, Australia, Far East, New Zealand.

4. **Cape Route**—This route connects Western Europe with western and southern parts of Africa, goes round the Cape of Good Hope to Australia and New Zealand.

5. **West Indies and South Atlantic Route**—This route goes to West Indies, Brazil Argentine. This route maintains connections between Europe and West Indies, Carribeans, Brazil, Argentine.

6. **Pacific Route**—This route connects the Pacific coast of America with Asia. It also connects Australia and New Zealand. All the exports of Far East to America are carried by this route.

SHIP CANALS

	Length miles	Depth		Length miles	Depth
Suez (Egypt) ..	104·5	39·5	Lake Washington (U.S.A.) ..	8	30
Kiel (Germany) ..	61	45	Burges (Belgium)	6·3	28
Houston (U.S.A.)	57	34	Corinth (Greece) ..	4	26·25
Gotta (Sweden) ..	54	10	Sault Ste. Marie (U.S.A.) ..	1·6	22
Trollhate (Sweden)	52	18	Roupel (Belgium)	20	21
Panama (U.S.A.)	50·72	45	Amsterdam (Netherlands)	16·5	40
Elve Trave (Ger.)	41	10	Sault Ste. Marie (Canada) ..	1·11	20·25
Manchester (Eng.)	35·5	26			
Welland (Canada)	27·6	30			
Cronstadt—Leningrad (U.S.S.R.)	16	28			
Cape Cod (U.S.A.)	13	25			

GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD-BREAKERS

Highest Mountain System	Himalayas.
Longest Mountain System	Andes.
Highest Plateau	Tibet.
Longest River	Mississippi-Missouri, 4,502 miles long.
Largest River Basin	Basin of Amazon, 2,702,800 sq. miles.
Largest Fresh Water Lake	Caspian Sea.
Largest Salt Water Lake	Superior.
Largest group of Islands	Malaya Archipelago.
Largest Artificial Lake	Lake Mead at Boulder Dam (U.S.A.).
Largest north to south stretch of land	America: N. and S. extend from Arctic to the Antarctic Ocean.
Largest inland sea	Mediterranean Sea.
Largest ship canal	Baltic White Sea Canal, 152 miles long.
Deepest Ocean	Pacific Ocean.
Largest Island	Greenland, 846,740 sq. miles.
Densest Population	Java (817 to the sq. mile).
Hottest Regions	North-west Sahara, Azizia (Tripolitania), Death Valley (California), and Thar Desert of North-west India.
Coldest Region	Verkoyansk in North-East Siberia where temperatures of 90° below zero have been recorded.
Largest Continent	Asia.
Largest Peninsula	India.
Highest Country	Tibet.
Biggest Ocean	Pacific Ocean.
Most Northernly Town	Hemmerfest in Norway, 275 miles north of Arctic circles.
Largest Desert	Sahara (Africa).
Largest City	London (Population 8,204,000).
Highest Peak	Mt. Everest (29,002 ft.).
Largest Populated Country	China.
Rainiest Place	Cherrapunji (Assam).
Largest Volcano	Mauna Loa (crater 12,400 ft.).
Smallest Continent	Australia.
Deepest Lake	Lake Baikal (Siberia).
Highest Volcano	Chimborozo in South America 20,700 ft.
Highest Lake	Lake Titicaca (Bolivia, 12,000 ft. above sea).
Saltiest Sea	Dead Sea.
Highest City	Phari, Tibet, altitude 14,300 ft.
Largest Coral formation	The Great Barrier Reef along north-eastern coast of Australia.
Lowest body of water	Dead Sea.
Deepest place in the ocean	Off the island of Mindanao in the Philippines where a sounding of 36,400 ft. has been reached.

CSL

WORLD EXTREMES OF CLIMATE

Coldest Place—
Verkoyansk (Siberian village)—90°F below zero (1892).
Hottest Place—
Azizia (Libya)—136°F (1922).
Death Valley (California)—134°F.
Minimum recorded Rainfall—
·05 inch at Iquique, Chile—average yearly fall during 25 years.
Lowest mean annual temperature—
—14°F at Framheim, Antarctica.
Maximum recorded Rainfall in one month—
241 inches at Cherrapunji, Assam (India), August 1841.

FAMOUS WATERFALLS

Name and location	*Height ft.*
Tugela (Natal, S. Africa)	2,810
Kukenaam (Br. Guinea—S.A.)	2,000
Southerland (S. Island, N.Z.)	1,904
Ribbon (California) ..	1,612
Gavarnie (France) ..	1,515
Upper Yosemite (California)	1,430
Takkakaw (Br. Columbia)	1,200
Staubbach (Switzerland)	980
Trummelbach (Switzerland)	950
Middle Cascade (California)	910
Multnomach (U.S.A.) ..	850
Vettisfos (Norway) ..	850
King Edward VIII (Br. Guinea)	840
Gersoppa (Mysore, India)	830
Kaieteur (Br. Guinea) ..	741
Kalambo (Tanganyika) ..	705
Fairy (America)	700
Maradalefos (Norway) ..	650
Skykkjefos (Norway) ..	650
Terni (Italy)	650

SOME GREAT EARTHQUAKES

	Deaths
1290 Sept. 27—China ..	100,000
1556 Jan. 24—China ..	830,000
1693 Jan. 11—Italy ..	60,000
1737 Oct. 11—India, Calcutta	300,000
1755 Nov. 1—Portugal ..	60,000
1868 Aug. 16—Equador, Peru	70,000
1908 Dec. 28—Italy, Messina	75,000
1920 Dec. 16—China ..	180,000
1923 Sept. 1—Japan, Tokio	143,000
1932 Dec. 26—China ..	70,000
1935, May 31—India, Quetta	60,000
1939 Dec. 27—Turkey ..	23,000

POLAR RECORDS

Arctic

Year	*Explorer*	*No.*	*Latitude*
1854 ..	E. K. Kane (U.S.A.)	78	45
1871 ..	Capt. Hall (U.S.A.)	82	11
1875 ..	Capt. Nares (G.B.)	83	20
1879 ..	Lieut. De Long	77	15
1882 ..	Lieut. Greely (U.S.A.)	83	24
1892 ..	Lieut. Peary (U.S.A.)	83	27
1895 ..	Fridtjof Nansen (Norway)	86	14
1900 ..	Duke d'Abruzzi (Italy)	86	34
1902 ..	Lieut. Peary (U.S.A.)	84	17

1904	..	Ziegler Polar Expedition (U.S.A.) ..	82	4
1906	..	Commander Peary (U.S.A.)	87	6
1909	..	Commander Peary (U.S.A.)	90 (Pole)	..
1925	..	Amundsen (Norway)	87	44
1926	..	Commander Byrd (U.S.A.)	90 (Pole)	..
1926	..	Amundsen-Ellsworth-Nobile† (*Norway, U.S.A. and Italy*)	90 (Pole)	..
1928	..	Gen. U. Nobile† (Italy)	90 (Pole)	..
1937	..	Pavel Golovin. (*Soviet Russia*) ..	90 (Pole)	..
1937	..	Prof. Otto J. Schmidt and four others. (*Soviet Russia*)	90 (Pole)	..

Antarctic

Year		*Explorer*	*No.*	*Latitude*
1774	..	Capt. Cook (G.B.)	71	10
1823	..	Capt. Weddell (G.B.)	74	15
1842	..	Capt. Ross (G.B.)	78	10
1900	..	Borghgrevink (G.B.)	78	50
1902	..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G.B.)	82	17
1909	..	Lieut. Shackleton (G.B.)	88	23
1911	..	Roald Amundsen (Norway)	90 (Pole)	..
1912	..	Capt. Robert F. Scott (G.B.) ..	90 (Pole)	..
1929	..	Admiral Richard Byrd* (U.S.A.) ..	90 (Pole)	..
1935	..	L. Ellsworth* (U.S.A.) ..	76-79	58

PORTS BY PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Natural
- San Francisco
- New York
- Sydney
- Rio de Janeiro

Tidal
- Liverpool
- Antwerp
- S. Wales Ports
- Calcutta

River
- London
- Hamburg
- Bremen
- Glasgow

Coast
- Valparaiso
- Madras
- San Pedro
- Tangier
- Cape Town
- Autofagasta

Canal
- Colon
- Panama
- Port Said
- Suez
- Amsterdam

Delta
- Alexandria
- New Orleans
- Marseilles
- Rotterdam

NATURAL WONDERS OF THE WORLD

Volcanoes—The two largest volcanoes in the world are in Equador in South America: *Chimborazo*, 20,702 ft. and Cotapaxi, 19,550 ft.

Gaysers—More gaysers are found in Yellowstone National Park (U.S.A.) than in any part of the world. The most famous gayser of the park is Old Faithful which spouts a column of water 150 ft. into the air regularly every 63 minutes. Larsen Volcanic National Park in California contains mud gaysers.

Waterfalls—Highest waterfall in the world is Tugela, Natal (South

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* By airplane.

† By airship.

Africa) which has a total height of 2,810 feet. The second largest waterfall in the world is Kukenaam, 2000 ft. in British Guinea in northern South America.

Canyons—The most impressive canyon in the world is Grand Canyon of the Colorado River, U.S.A. and extends for 217 miles with a width on the rim of from 4 to 18 miles. The canyon reaches a maximum depth of about 5,500 feet below the surrounding plateau.

Caverns—Mammoth Cave, the largest underground cavern in the world is located in southeastern Kentucky, U.S.A. and it extends for 10 miles with 100 miles of connected passages.

Glaciers—The largest glaciers in the World are found in Greenland and the Arctic as well as Antarctic regions.

Deserts—Largest desert is the Sahara in northern Africa covering an area of about 3,000,000 square miles and reaching a maximum altitude of 9,000 feet above the sea level.

Mountains—The loftiest peak in the World is Mount Everest, 29,002 ft. in height in Himalaya mountains in Nepal.

Lakes—Lake Superior is the largest fresh water lake in the World. Lake Victoria (Africa) is the second largest lake in the World.

Oceans—Pacific Ocean is the largest single body of water on the surface of the globe and reaches the maximum depth of 35,400 ft. near the Island of Mindanao in the Philippines.

Gulf Stream—is a warm ocean current that originates near the Gulf of Mexico and flows north along the eastern coast of United States, then across the Atlantic Ocean, passing near Great Britain and the Scandinavian Peninsula and ending in the Arctic Ocean. Japanese current is the 'gulf stream' of the Pacific Ocean having its origin in the China Sea. This stream becomes the California Current and warms the northwestern shores of the United States.

MAN-MADE WONDERS

Pyramids of Egypt—Located on the west bank of the Nile River and extends for about 60 miles south of Gizeh, they were built during the period from 3500 B.C. to 18 B.C. to contain tombs of Pharoahs. The largest of the pyramids erected by by Cheops rises 450 ft. above the desert. It is 746 ft. square at the base and occupies almost 13 acres.

Colossus of Rhodes—A statue of the Greek Sun God Helios (Apollo) 108 ft. in height and made of brass or bronze completed in about 280 B.C. The figure stood on the island of Rhodes in the eastern Mediterranean and was destroyed by an earthquake in 224 B.C.

Pharos of Alexandria—A lighthouse of white marble about 400 ft. in height erected by King Ptolemy between 265 and 247 B.C. on the island of Pharos in the harbour of Alexandria, Egypt. It was destroyed by an earthquake in 1375 A.D.

Mausoleum of Halicarnassus—A marble tomb built in 352 B.C. at Halicarnassus in Asia Minor by Queen Artemisia for her husband Mansolus. It was 140 ft. high. It was destroyed by earthquake between 12th and 15th centuries.

Hanging Gardens of Babylon—Terraced gardens planted by King Nebuchadnezzar about 600 B.C. in Bagdad in Iraq.

Statue of Zeus at Olympia—A statue carved by Phidias in the 4th century B.C. It was placed in the temple of Olympus in south-western Greece where all who attended the Olympic games might pay homage to Zeus, King of the Greek deities.

Alhambra—A group of buildings erected chiefly between 1248 and 1354 by the Moorish King Al Ahmar and his successors on a hill above Granada in southern Spain. It is claimed to be the crowning achievement of the Moors in Spain.

Taj Mahal—A domed square mausoleum of white marble at Agra in India built during the period from 1630 to 1648 by Emperor Shah Jahan as a burial place for his favourite wife Mumtaz Mahal. Tajmahal is the perfect gem of moslem art.

Temple of Diana at Ephasus—A monument of brightly coloured marble, designed by Ctesiphon and built by the Ionians in the 5th century B.C. at the now-vanished city of Ephesus, south of Smyrna in western Asia Minor. The temple was 425 ft. in length and 225 ft. wide. It was burnt in 356 B.C.

Porcelain Tower of Nankin—An eightsided pagoda 261 feet in height erected in the 15th century by a Chinese King in eastern China. The structure contained eight or nine stories. It was destroyed in 1853.

Leaning Tower of Pisa—A round white marble bell-tower located at Pisa near the north-west coast of Italy and containing eight stories enclosed by columns. The tower leans about 14 feet out of the perpendicular, its height being 181 feet on the north side and 179 feet on the south side. It was built in 1350.

Stonehenge—A monument of huge stones forming three circles, supposed to be erected by a Celtic race of sun-worshippers 4,000 years ago at Salisbury Plain, 90 miles from London.

Great Sphinx—A stone image of a crouching lion with a human head, located at Gizeh in northern Egypt and carved about 3500 B.C. The total height of Sphinx is about 66 ft., its body is 189 ft. in length.

Great Wall of China—A wall of about 1,400 miles long extending along the boundary between northern China and Mongolia. At the interval of 10 yds. are towers 40 feet high. It was begun in the 3rd century.

Great Buddhist Temple of Java—An elaborate monument of Buddhist architecture, known as *Boro Budor* and built of volcanic lava in the 9th or 8th century in Java. It shows architecture and sculpture of grandeur. It probably dates from the 8th century A.D.

Arcopolis at Athens—A hill about 260 feet in height located in south-eastern Greece. At the summit are ruins of numerous temples originally enclosed by Doric and Ionic columns and built of marble by Pericles and Cimon in the 5th century B.C. The most notable of these structures include *Parthenon* which contained a gold and ivory statue of Athena.

St. Peter's at Rome—The largest Cathedral in the world covering an area of 18,000 square yards and located in Rome, Italy. It was completed in 1632. The Cathedral's greatest length is 636 feet, its height is 435 feet.

Mayan Temples—Buildings erected by the Mayan Indians who attained a high civilization before the birth of Christ. The temples, now in ruins were built on lofty pyramid shaped terraces and were frequently ornamented with columns in the form of feathered snakes.

Mosque of Santa Sophia—A building located at Istanbul in northern Turkey and erected b Emperor Justinian in 6th cent

The Turkish Sultan Mohammed II made the structure a mosque after conquering the city in 1453.

Potala of Tibet—The fortress-palace of Dalai Lama who is the ruler of Tibet. Located in Potala hill overlooking a river, the structure is over 900 feet in length and resembles a fortress with many gilded roofs and towers at various levels—the highest being more than 400 feet from the ground.

Shwe Dagon Pagoda—A gilded bell-shaped structure erected at Rangoon to contain eight hairs of Buddha. Its base is 1,355 feet in circumference and the top is encased with gold leaf supporting 1,500 little bells of silver and gold. It is 367 feet high.

Colosseum of Rome—The ruins of an oval amphitheatre, 1,680 feet in circumference located at Rome in western Italy. Built of marble and concrete with three rows of columns one above the other, the Colosseum could accommodate 80,000 spectators at a single performance and was 157 feet high, containing an area 285 feet long and 182 feet wide. It was built in about 80 A.D.

Colossus of Mysore—A statue of 60 feet in height representing Gomateswara, a Saint of the Jain religion. It was carved in 983 A.D. from a solid rock on a hill top that rises 470 feet above a plain in the State of Mysore. The image is 26 feet broad at the shoulders and stands on a circular platform.

Angkor Vat—A structure 796 ft. long and 588 feet wide in a city in Cambodia, French Indo-China, comprising a royal city of 59 sq. miles area and temple Angkor Vat. Built in 9th century by the Khmers, the enclosed temples, palaces and public building of stone are completely covered with sculptured scenes which picture life of Khmer civilization now extinct. The largest of five pagodas rises 250 feet above foundations at the centre of the temple.

Empire State Building—in New York City is the tallest building of the world reaching a height of 1,250 feet in 102 stories. The building was completed in 1931.

GENERAL INFORMATION

LONGEST RAILWAY STATION PLATFORMS

	feet
Sone (O.T.R., India) ..	2,415
Kharagpur (B.N.R., India)	2,350
Bulawayo (Rhodesia) ..	2,302
New Lucknow (E.I.R., India)	2,250
Manchester Victoria Exchange (L.M.S.) ..	2,194
Bezwada (M.S.M., India)	2,100
Jhansi (G.I.P., India) ..	2,024
Kotri (N.W.R., Pakistan)	1,896
Mandalay (Burma Railways)	1,788
Bournemouth (England) ..	1,748
Perth (Joint)	1,714
York (L.N.E.R.)	1,701
Edinburgh	1,680
Aberdeen	1,496
Trichinopoly (S.I.R.) ..	1,546
Ranaghat (E.I.R.)	1,509
Dakor (B.B.C.I.)	1,470

NOTABLE BRIDGES

	Length of channel span in feet	*Type*		*Length of channel span in feet*	*Type*
Golden gate (U.S.A.)	4,200	S	Bayonne (U.S.A.) ..	1,652	S
George Washington (U.S.A.)	3,500	S	Sydney Harbour (Australia)	1,650	SA
Transbay (U.S.A.) ..	2,310	S	Bear Mountain (U.S.A.)	1,632	SA
Bronx-Whitestone (U.S.A.)	2,300	S	Williamsburgh (U.S.A.)	1,600	S
Ambassador (U.S.A.)	1,850	S	Brooklyn (U.S.A.) ..	1,595·5	S
Quebec (Canada) ..	1,800	C	First Narrows (Canada)	1,550	S
Delaware River (U.S.A.)	1,750	S			
Forth (Scotland) ..	1,710	C			

C = Cantilever; S = Suspension; SA = Steel Arch

NOTABLE TELESCOPES

Size in inches	*Refractor Observatory*	*Telescopes Location*	*Size in inches*	*Reflector Observatory*	*Telescopes Location*
40	Yerkes	Williams Bay U.S.A.	200	Palomar	Mt. Palomar, California
36	Lick	Mt. Hamilton, California	100	Mt. Wilson	Pasadena, California
32·7	Univ. of Paris	Meudon, Paris	82	Mcdonald	Mt. Locke, USA
31·5	Astrophysical	Potsdam, Germany	74	Dunlop	Richmond Hill, U.S.A.
30	Alleghney	Pittsburgh, U.S.A.	69	Perkin	Delaware, USA
			61	Harvard	Oke Ridge, USA
30	Bischoffsheim	Nice, France	60	Bloemfontein	S. Africa
30	Poulkova	Leningrand	60	Mt. Wilson	Pasadena, California
			60	Coroba	Argentina

BIGGEST VESSELS

	Reg. tons		*Reg. tons*
Queen Elizabeth (Br.) ..	83,673	Pasteur (Br.)	29,253
Queen Mary (Br.) ..	81,235	Georgic (Br.)	27,268
Liberte (Fr.)	49,746	Dominion Monarch (Br.)	27,155
Conte di Savoia (It.) ..	48,502	Capetown Castle (Br.) ..	27,000
Aquitania (Br.)	44,786	Britannic (Br.)	26,943
Il de France (Fr.) ..	43,450	America (U.S.)	26,314
Nieuw Amsterdam (Holl.)	36,287	Empress of Scotland (Br.)	26,032
Mauretania (Br.) ..	35,677		

Atlantic Blue Riband—Normandie (1935); Queen Mary (1936); Normandie (1937); Queen Mary (1938).

FIREPOWER TERMS

Calibre—one-hundredth of an inch in the measurement of small arms. A ·50 calibre machine gun fires a bullet one-half inch in diameter.

Mm. (millimetre)—one mm. equals ·03937 inches. Thus a 76 mm. gun fires a shell approximately 3 inches in diameter.

Fuze—mechanical device for detonating shell, fixed to the head or base of the shell and set to explode on time or contact. Not to be confused with fuse, a powder train like the use of a firecracker.

Round—one shot of ammunition. When a machine-gun fires 25 rounds, it fires 25 bullets. In artillery, one round includes all the components necessary for one shot-fuze, the projectile itself, propellant (powder bags) and primer.

Cutting Fuze—setting the fuze on a shell. "Cutting" goes back to the days of powder train fuzes, when fuze was cut to desired length.

Direct Laying—Firing at a visible target.

Indirect Laying—Firing at a target which can not be seen.

Trajectory—The path of a shell from gun muzzle to target.

Muzzle Velocity—Speed of a shell in feet per second. The Long Tom has a muzzle velocity of 2,800 feet per second, the ·50 calibre machine gun 2,900 feet per second.

Traverse—In sighting a gun, traverse is movement right or left; elevation is movement up and down.

SEVEN WONDERS OF THE WORLD

The Pyramid of Egypt—Three structures are located at Gizeh. The largest pyramid built by Cheops has the original height of about 482 ft.

The Hanging Gardens at Babylon—These gardens are associated with Semiramis, a mythical queen who was reputed to have built the city of Babylon.

The Statue of Zeus (Jupiter at Olympia)—The Statue of the 'father of gods and men' was wrought by Pheidias, greatest of Greek sculptors.

The temple of Artemis (Diana) at Ephesus—The temple was constructed in the celebrated Etruscan era of Rome on one of the seven famous hills of ancient Rome.

The mausoleum at Halicarnassus—Erected by Queen Artemisia in 353 B.C. in memory of his husband, King Mausolus in Asia Minor.

Colossus at Rhodes—A statue of Helios (Apollo), about 120 ft. high and constructed in 280 B.C. The statue was thrown down by an earthquake in 224 B.C.

The Pharos of Alexandria—On the eastern point of Pharos Island. It was a famous light house. The structure was claimed to be 400 feet high.

LARGEST BELLS

	Approximate weight in tons
Great Bell at Moscow (*World's largest*)	200
Great Bell at Mingoon, Burma	125
Great Bell at Peking ..	55
Novgorod, Russia	31
Bell at Cologne Cathedral ..	26
St. Issac's Cathedral, Leningrad	22
Oulmutz, Austria	18
Vienna	18

Notre Dame, Paris	18	Montreal (R. C. Cathedral)	13
St. Paul's, London	17	York	12
"Great Tomb", Oxford	17	Big Ben, Westminster	12
Seus, France	13	Gorlitz, Silesia	10
Erfuz Cathedral, Prussian Saxony	13	Brugs	10

HIGH BUILDINGS AND TOWERS

	Feet		Feet
Soviet Palace (Moscow)	1,365	Chanin Tower (U.S.A.)	680
Empire State (N.Y.)	1,248	Lincoln Building (U.S.A.)	638
Chrysler (N.Y.)	1,046	Waldorf-Astoria (N.Y.)	626
Eiffel Tower (Paris)	984	Ulm Cathedral (Germany)	529
60 Wall Tower (N.Y.)	950	Cologne Cathedral (Ger.)	512
Bank of Manhattan (N.Y.)	925	Rouen Cathedral (France)	485
R. C. A. Rockefeller Centre	850	Straussburg Cathedral (Ger.)	468
Woolworth (N.Y.)	792	Pyramid of Cheops (Egypt)	450
Farmer's Trust, (N.Y.)	767	St. Stephen's Cathedral (Vienna)	441
Terminal Tower (U.S.A.)	708		
Metropolitan Building (N.Y.)	700		

LIBRARIES OF THE WORLD

	Books.	Mss.
British Museum	3,750,000	56,000
Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris	4,500,000	122,000
State Library, Berlin	2,130,000	56,810
Nationalbibliothek, Vienna	1,250,000	27,000
Bibilioteca Nazionale, Naples	1,000,000	11,868
Bibliotheque Royale, Amsterdam	1,000,000	..
Gosudarstrennaya Publichanya Biblioteka, Leningrad	5,000,000	240,000
Lenin Memorial Library, Moscow	3,900,000	..

WORLD DAMS

	Storage capacity in billion gallons	Height in feet	Cost (in thousand dollars)
Boulder (U.S.A.)	9,938	727	128,000
Fort Peck (U.S.A.)	6,354	242	86,000
Grand Coulee (U.S.A.)	3,142	550	186,000
Gatun (U.S.A.)	1,437	115	9,823
Aswan (Egypt)	1,322	147	29,000
Norris (U.S.A.)	1,107	265	36,604
Elephant Butte (U.S.A.)	860	306	4,149
Saluda (U.S.A.)	749	208	6,000
Osage (U.S.A.)	749	148	30,000
Mattur (India)	700	239	..

MUSEUMS OF THE WORLD

Art Museum

- British Museum, London.
- Victoria and Albert Museum, London.
- National Gallery, London.
- Louvre, Paris.
- Museo Nazionale, Naples (Italy).
- Uffizi Gallery, Florence (Italy).
- Kaiser Friedrich Museum, Berlin.
- Schloss Museum, Berlin.
- Royal Museum of Fine Arts, Brussels.
- State Museum, Amsterdam.
- Museo del Prado, Madrid.
- Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow.
- Imperial Household Museum, Tokyo.

Science Museum

- New University Museum, Oxford.
- Science Museum, London.
- Royal Scottish Museum, Scotland.
- Science Museum, Dublin.
- Indian Museum, Calcutta.
- Victoria & Albert Museum, Bombay.
- Natural History Museum, Bombay.
- Museum d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris.
- Royal Museum of Natural History, Stockholm.
- Imperial Natural History Museum, Vienna.
- Imperial Academy of Science, Leningrad.

BIGGEST, LARGEST, GREATEST, LONGEST

Highest Mountain peak ..	.. Mount Everest (29,002 ft.).
Largest Desert ..	.. Sahara (Africa).
Tallest Building ..	.. Soviet Palace (Russia) 1,365 ft.
Largest Palace ..	.. Vatican (Rome).
Biggest Ship ..	.. Queen Elizabeth (83,673 tons).
Largest Diamond Mine	.. Kimberly, South Africa.
Tallest Statue ..	.. Statue of Liberty (N.Y.) 151 ft. high.
Tallest Church ..	.. Ulm Cathedral (Germany, 529 ft. high).
Largest Church ..	.. Church of St. Peters (Rome).
Largest Diamond ..	.. The Cullinan.
Rainiest Place ..	.. Cherrapunji, Assam.
Biggest & Deepest Ocean	.. Pacific Ocean.
Longest Corridor ..	.. Rameswaram Temple Corridor, S. India. About 4,000 ft. long.
Longest Rly. Platform	.. Sonepur Station (Bihar).
Largest Pearl ..	.. Beresford-Hope Pearl, weighing 1800 grams.
Longest Railway run	.. Riga to Vladivostock (6,000 miles)
Largest Telescope	.. At Mt. Palomar, California, diameter of reflector is 200 inches.
Largest Museum ..	.. British Museum (London).
Longest River ..	.. Mississippi-Mussorie.
Largest River (in vol.)	.. Amazon.
Largest Railway Station	.. Grand Central Terminal (New York) with 47 platforms.
Largest Dome ..	.. Gol Gumbaz (Bijapur) 144 ft. in actual diameter.
Largest Building ..	.. The Pyramid at Gizeh, Egypt.
Tallest Tower ..	.. Eiffel Tower, Paris, 984 ft. high.
Largest group of Islands	.. Malaya Archipelago.
Largest Delta ..	.. Sundarban Delta, comprising 8,000 sq. m.
Largest Royal Palace	.. The Palace at Madrid.

Largest Single Country ..	Brazil with an area of 3,285,319 sq. miles.
Largest Freshwater Lake ..	Lake Superior.
Largest Volcano	Mauna Loa (Hawaii, 13,760 ft.) crater 12,400 ft. in diameter.
Largest & populous continent	Asia.
Longest Wall	The Great Wall of China over 1,500 miles.
Longest Canal	Stalin's White Sea-Baltic Canal.
Largest office building ..	Pentagon (U.S.A.) 34 acres, where 32,000 people work daily; floor area 6,000,000 feet, has 17 miles of corridor.
Longest Tunnel	Simplon (Switzerland) 12 miles 458 yds. long.
Highest Dam	Boulder Dam (U.S.A.) 726 ft. above bed-rock.
Largest Peninsula ..	India.
Highest tree	Giant Sequoia tree in the Hambolt State Park, California—364 ft. high and estimated to weigh nearly 2000 tons.
Largest Island	Greenland (827,300 sq. miles).
Densest Population ..	Java (over 800 per sq. mile).
Largest Bell	Bell of Moscow, cast in 1733, 21 ft. high. 21 ft. diameter and weighs 200 tons.
Largest Planetary Body ..	Jupiter.
Biggest Park	Yellowstone National Park (U.S.A.) 3,350 sq. miles.
Largest Archway	Sydney Harbour Bridge (Australia).
Largest Bridge	San Francisco Oakland Bridge.
Smallest Continent ..	Australia.
Highest City	Phari, Tibet, altitude 14,300 ft.
Longest Throughfare ..	Broadway in New York.

GREAT INVENTIONS

1450, Movable type, Guttenberg (German).
1593, Thermometer, Galileo (Italian).
1608, Telescope, Lippershey (Dutch)
1643, Barometer, Torricelli (Italian).
1709, Thermometer, Farenheit (Germany).
1752, Lightning rod, Franklin (American).
1765, Steam Engine, Watt (Eng.)
1783, Hot air balloon Montgolfier (France).
1785, Powerloom, Cartwright (Eng.)
1793, Cotton gin, Whitney (American).
1807, Steamboat, Fulton (American).
1815, Miner's safety lamp, Davy (English).
1816, Stethoscope, Laennec (French)
1827, Friction matches, Walker (English).
1829, Steam Locomotive, Stephenson (English).
1831, Dynamo-Electric Machine, Faraday (English).
1832, Telegraph, Morse (American).
1835, Revolver, Colt (American).
1839, Photography, Louis Daguerre (French).
1841, Screw propeller, Ericsson (Swedish).
1842, Ether as an anesthetic, Long (American).
1842, Bicycle, MacMillan (Scottish)

1844, Vulcanized rubber, Goodyear (American).
1846, Sewing machine, Elias Howe (American).
1848, Portland cement, Johnson (England).
1849, Safety Pin, Walter Hunt (American).
1851, Induction coil, Ruhmkorff (Germany).
1852, Power Elevator, Otis (American).
1855, Gas Burner, Bunsen (Germany).
1856, Steel, Bessemer (English).
1858, Atlantic cable, Field (American).
1866, Dynamite, Nobel (Swedish).
1868, Lawn mower, Hills (American).
1868, Typewriter, Sholes (American).
1869, Air brake, Westinghouse (American).
1876 Telephone, Bell (American).
1877, Microphone, Berliner (American).
1877, Phonograph, Edison (American).
1878, Electric lamp, Edison (American).
1879, Cash register, Ritty (American).
1880, Linotype, Mergenthaler (American).
1883, Rayon, Jos. Swan (English).
1884, Fountain pen, Waterman (American).
1887, Electric Motor: Tesla (American).
1887, Gramophone Berliner (American).
1888, Roll-film hand Camera, Eastman & Walker (American)
1891, Kinetoscope, Edison (American).
1892, Colour photography, Ives (American).
1893, Diesel engine, Diesel, (German).
1895, Photo-electric cell, Elster and Geitel (German).
1895, Moving picture projector, Louis Lumiere (French).
1896, Wireless Telegraphy, G. Marconi (Italian).
1900, Submarine, Holland (American).
1903, Airplane, Wright brothers (American).
1905, Gyroscope Stabilizer, Sperry (American).
1907, Radio vaccuum tube, De Forest (American).
1907, Bakelite, Baekeland (Belgian-American).
1912, Cellophane, Brandenburger (French).
1914, Military tank, Swinton (English).
1916, Helicopter, Brennan (English).
1920, Autogyro, De la Cierva (American).
1925, Television, Baird (Scottish).
1937, Nylon, Carothers (American)
1945, Atomic bomb, American and British Scientists.

CHEMICAL INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES

1766—Cavandish: Discovery of inflammable air (Hydrogen).
1774—Priestley: Discovery of Oxygen.
1783—Lavoisier: First quantative synthesis of water.
1803—Dalton: Atomic theory; laws of chemical combination.
1809—Gay-Lussac: Laws of gases.
1818—Avogardo: Molicular hypothesis.
1828—Wöhler, Liebig: Synthesis of urea; Foundation of organic chemistry.
1841—Faraday: Induction of electrical current.
1860—Bunsen, Kirchhoff: Invention of spectroscope.
1868—Lockyer: Discovery of helium on sun by use of spectroscope.

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1869—Mendelev: Periodic table of elements, established families of elements.
1887—Arrhenius: Ionic theory of dissociation in solution.
1896—Becquerel: Radioactivity of uranium.
1896—Curie: Discovery of radium.
1908—Onnes: Liquefaction of helium.
1912—Laue, Bragg: X-ray structures of crystals.
1913—Moseley: Atomic numbers.
1919—Ashton: Mass spectroscope for separation of isotopes.
1932—Urey: Discovery of deuterium.
1934—Joliot, Curie: Artificial radioactivity.
1934—Urey: Heavy water.

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS IN ELECTRICITY

1745—Von Kleist: Leyden jar condenser.
1752—Franklin: Lightning rod and nature of lightning.
1791—Galvani: Theory of animal electricity and electric battery.
1800—Volta: Current electricity and electric battery.
1825—Ohm: Laws of electrical resistance.
1831—Faraday: Electromagnetic induction.
1832—Morse: Electric telegraph.
1832—Gauss: System of absolute electric measurements.
1838—Page: Induction Coil.
1870—Gramme: First industrial dynamo.
1876—Bell: Telephone.
1878—Crookes: Discovery of cathode ray.
1878—Edison: First electric incandescent lamp.
1885—Stanley: Electric Transformer.
1892—Tesla: Alternating current motor.
1892—Steinmetz: Laws of alternating current.
1995—Roentgen: Discovery of X-ray
1896—Marconi: Practical Wireless.
1897—Thomson: Isolation of the electron.
1904—Fleming: First diode radio tube.
1907—De Forest: Triode radio tube.
1914—Coolidge: Tungsten filament lamp.
1925—Baird: Discovery of Television.

DISCOVERIES IN MEDICINE AND PHYSIOLOGY

1628—Harvey: Circulation of blood and function of heart.
1675—Leewenhoek: observation of bacteria by microscope.
1737—Linnaeus: System of classifying plants and animals.
1796—Jenner: Vaccination for smallpox.
1819—Laennec: Invention of stethosscope.
1842—Long: First use of ether as anesthetic in surgery.
1859—Darwin: Evolution and theory of natural selection.
1865—Mendel: Laws of heredity.
1867—Lister: Antiseptic surgery.
1880—Nicolaier: Discovery of titanus germs.
1880—Eberth: Discovery of typhoid bacillus.
1882—Metchnikov: function of white blood corpusles discovered.
1882—Pasteur: preventive of rabies.
1882—Koch: Tuberculosis bacteria discovered.
1892—Weisman: Developed theory of germ plasm in heredity.
1883—Klebs: Diphtheria bacillus.
1894—Kitasato; Discovery of plague bacillus.
1894—Roux: perfection of diphtheria antitoxin.
1897—Eijkman: cause of beriberi, vitamin deficiency.
1900—Takamine: First hormone isolated.

1905—Binet: Intelligency tests.
1906—Wasserman: Tests for syphillis.
1907—Shull: Development of hybrid corn.
1907—Willslatter: Constitution of chlorophyll.
1908—Freud: Doctrine of psyhcoanalysis.
1910—Pavlov: mechanism of the conditioned reflex.
1912—Ehrlich: Salvarsan, cure ot syphillis.
1912—Cushing: relation of pituitary gland to growth.
1913—Goldberger: Cause and control of pellagra.
1913—McCollum: Insolation of vitamin A.
1922—Banting, Macleod: Insulin for treatment of diabetes.
1924—Steenbock: Production of vitamin D by ultra violet irradiation.
1926—Minot, Whipple and Murphy: Liver treatment of anemia.
1932—Domagk: Sulfa drugs as bactericides.
1936—Stanley: Molecular nature of viruses.
1946—Du Vigneaud: Synthetic penicillin.

DISCOVERIES IN PHYSICS

1687—Newton: Law of gravitation.
1785—Columb: Fundamental laws of electrical attraction.
1840—Joule: measurements of electric current.
1847—Helmholtz: Law of conservation of energy.
1815—Fresnel: Diffraction of light.
1873—Maxwell: Electromagnetic theory of energy.
1896—Becquerel: Discovery of radio-activity.
1897—Thomson: Discovery of electrons.
1901—Planck: Quantum theory.
1902—Michelson: Velocity of light.
1905—Einstein: Theory of relativity.
1911—Rutherford: Theory of atomic nucleus.
1913—Bhor: Electron theory.
1924—De Broglie: Wave nature of the electrons.
1931—Lawrence: Invention of cyclotron.
1932—Chadwick: Discovery of neutron.
1932—Anderson: Discovery of positron.
1934—Fermi: Use of slow neutrons in atom smashing.
1934—Uray: Heavy water.
1938—Hahn: Discovery of uranium fission.
1941—Fermi: Atomic pile for generation of power.

NOBEL PRIZES

Physics

1901—W. C. Roentgen, Germany.
1902—H. A. Lorentz, and P. Zeeman, Denmark.
1903—A. H. Becquerel, France and Pierre and Marie Curie, France.
1904—Lord Rayleigh, England.
1905—Philippe Lenard, Germany
1906—J. J. Thomson, England.
1907—A. A. Michelson, America.
1908—G. Lipman, France.
1909—G. Marconi, Italy and F. Braun, Germany.
1910—J. D. van der Waals, Holland.
1911—Prof W. Wien, Germany.
1912—Gustaf Dalen, Sweden.
1913—Prof. H. Kamerlingh-Onnes, Denmark.
1914—Prof. M. von Laue, Ger.
1915—Prof. W. H. Bragg and W. L. Brag, England.
1916—*No award.*
1917—C. G. Barlka, England.
1918—Max Planck, Germany.
1919—Prof. J. Starke, Germany.

1920—Prof. S. E. Guillaume, Switzerland.
1921—Dr. Albert Einstein, Germany.
1922—Niels Bohr. Denmark.
1923—R. A. Millikan, America.
1924—K. M. G. Seigbahn, Sweden. and Dr. Gustav Hertz, Ger.
1925—Dr. James Franck, Germany
1926—Jean B. Perrin, France.
1927—Prof. Arthur Compton America and Prof. C. T. Rees Wilson, England.
1928—Prof. O. W. Ricardson, England.
1929—Duc. L. V. d'Brogile, France.
1930—Sir Chandrasekhara Venkata Raman, India.
1931—*No award.*
1932—W. Heisenberg, Germany.
1933—P. A. M. Dirac, England and Erwin Schrodinger, Austria
1934—*No award.*
1935—J. Chadwick, England.
1936—Prof. V. G. Hess, Austria and C. D. Anderson, Am.
1937—C. J. Davisson, America and G. P. Thomson, England.
1938—E. Fermi, Italy.
1939—E. O. Lawrence, America.
1940-42—*No awards.*
1943—Prof. O. Stern, America.
1944—Prof. I. I. Rabi, America.
1945—W. Pauli, Switzerland.
1946—P. W. Bridgman, U.S.A.
1947—Sir E. Appleton, England.
1948—Prof. P. M. S. Blacket, Eng.

Medicine and Physiology

1901—E. Aolf von Behring, Ger.
1902—Sir Ronald Ross, England.
1903—N. R. Finsen, Denmark.
1904—I. P. Pavlov, Russia.
1905—R. Koch, Germany.
1906—Profs. Ramony Cajal, Spain and Camillo Golgi, Italy.
1907—C. L. A. Laveran, France.
1908—Dr. Paul Ehrlich, Germany.
1909—T. Kocher, Germany.
1910—A. Kossel, Germany.
1911—A. Gullstrand, Sweden.
1912—Dr. A. Carrel, America.
1913—C. Richet, France.
1914—Dr. R. Barany, Austria.
1915-18—*No award.*
1919—Dr. J. Bordet, Belgium.
1920—Prof. A. Krogh, Denmark.
1921—*No award.*
1922—Prof. A. Hill, England and Prof. Mayerhoff, Germany.
1923—Dr. F. G. Banting and Dr. J. J. R. McLeod, Canada.
1924—W. Einthoven, Holland.
1925—*No award.*
1926—Prof. J. Fibiger, Denmark.
1927—Julius W. Jauregg, Austria.
1928—Charles Nicolle, France.
1929—Dr. F. G. Hopkins, England and Dr. E. Eijkmann, Holland.
1930—Karl Landsteiner, America.
1931—Otto H. Warburf, Germany.
1932—Sir Charles Sherrington, and Prof. E. D. Adrian, England.
1933—T. H. Morgan, America.
1934—Drs. G. Minot. W. P. Murphy and Dr. G. H. Whipple, America.
1935—Dr. H. Spemann, Germany.
1936—Sir Henry Dale, England and Prof. Otto Loewe, Austria.
1937—Prof. Albert von Szentgyorgyi, Hungary.
1938—Prof. C. Heymans, Belgium.
1939—Prof. G. Domagk, Germany.
1940-42—*No award.*
1943—Prof. Kenrik Dam, Copenhagen and Prof. Edward Doisy, U.S.A.
1944—Prof. Joseph Erlanger, and Prof. H. Gasser, U.S.A.
1945—Sir A. Fleming, Sir Howard Florey and Dr. B. B. Chain, England.
1946—H. J. Muller, U.S.A.
1947—Dr. Carl F. & Mrs. F. Cori, Czechoslovakia and Dr. Bernardo A. Houssay, Brazil.
1948—Dr. Paul Muller, Swit.

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Chemistry

1901—J. H. Hoff, Holland.
1902—Emil Fisher, Germany.
1903—S. A. Arrhenius, Sweden.
1904—Sir W. Ramsay, Eng.
1905—A. von Baeyer, Germany.
1906—Prof. H. Moissan, France.
1907—E. Buchner, Germany.
1908—Prof. Ernest Rutherford, Eng.
1909—Prof. W. Ostwald, Germany.
1910—Otto Wallach, Germany.
1911—Marie Curie, France.
1912—V. Grignard and P. Sabatier, France.
1913—Alfred Werner, Switzerland.
1914—T. W. Richards, Eng.
1915—R. Willstatter, Germany.
1916-17—*No award*
1918—Fritz Haber, Germany.
1919—*No award.*
1920—Walther Nearnst, Germany.
1921—Prof. F. Soddy, England.
1922—F. W. Aston, England.
1923—Fritz Pregl, Austria.
1924—*No award.*
1925—R. Zsigmondy, Germany.
1926—Dr. T. Svedberg, Sweden.
1927—Prof. H. Wieland, Germany.
1928—Dr. A. Windaus, Germany.
1929—Dr. A. Harden, England and H. von Euler-Cheplin, Sweden.
1930—Hans Fischer, Germany.
1931—Prof. Carl Bosch and Prof. F. Bergius, Germany.
1932—Irving Langmuir, America.
1933—*No award.*
1934—Dr. H. C. Urey, America.
1935—Prof. & Mrs. F. Joliot, France.
1936—Prof. Debye, Germany.
1937—W. N. Haworth, England & Paul Karrer, Switzerland.
1938—Prof. R. Khun Germany.*
1939—A. Butenandt, Germany* and Prof. Ruzicka, Switzerland.
1940-42—*No award.*
1943—Prof. Georg Hevesy, Hun.
1944—Otto Hahn, Germany.
1945—Artturi Virtanen, Finland.
1946—James B. Sumner, W. M. Stanley & J. H. Northrop, U.S.A.
1947—Sir Robert Robinson, Eng.
1948—Prof. Arne Tiselius, Sweden.

Literature

1901—R. F. A. Sully-Prudhomme, France.
1902—T. Mommsen, Germany.
1903—B. Bjornson, Norway.
1904—H. F. Mistral, France and Jose Echegaray, Spain.
1905—H. Sienkiewicz, Poland.
1906—G. Carduici, Italy.
1907—R. Kipling England.
1908—R. Eucken, Germany.
1909—Selma Lagerlof, Sweden.
1910—Paul Heyse, Germany.
1911—M. Maeterlinck, Belgium.
1912—G. Hauptmann, Germany.
1913—Rabindranath Tagore, India.
1914—*No award.*
1915—Romain Rolland, France.
1916—V. Heidenstam, Sweden.
1917—Karl Gjellerup and H. Pontoppidan, Denmark.
1918—*No award.*
1919—C. Spitteler, Switzerland.
1920—Knut Hamsun, Norway.
1921—Anatole France, France.
1922—J. Benavente Spain.
1923—William B. Yeats, Ireland.
1924—W. S. Reymont, Poland.
1925—G. B. Shaw England.
1926—Grazia de Ledda, Italy.
1927—Henri Bergson, France.
1928—Mme. S Undset, Norway.
1929—T. Mann, Germany.
1930—Sinclair Lewis. America.
1931—Erik A. Karlfeldt, Sweden.
1932—J. Galsworthy, England.
1933—Ivan Bunin, Russia.

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* Declined.

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1934—Lugi Pirandello, Italy.
1935—*No award.*
1936—Eugene O'Neil, America.
1937—R. M. du Gard, France.
1938—Pearl Buck. America.
1939—Emil Sillanpaa, Finland.
1940-43—*No awards.*
1944—Dr. J. V. Jensen, Den.
1945—Gabrielas Mistral, Chille.
1946—Herman Hesse, Switzerland.
1947—Andre Gide, France.
1948—T. S. Elliot, England.

Peace

1901—Henri Dunant, Switzerland & Frederick Passy, France.
1902—Elei Ducommum and A. Gobat, Belgium.
1903—W. R. Cremer, England.
1904—The Institute of International Law, Belgium.
1905—Bertha B von Suttner Austria.
1906—T. Roosevelt, America.
1907—E. T. Moneta, Italy & Louis Renault, France.
1908—K. P. Arnoldson, Sweden & Frederik Bajer, Denmark.
1909—Baron de Constant, France & M. Beernaertt Belgium.
1910—International Permanent Peace Bureau Switzerland.
1911—Prof. T. M. C. Asser, Holland & A. Fried, Austria.
1912—Elihu Root, America.
1913—H. la Fotaine. Belgium.
1914-16—*No award.*
1917—International Red Cross, Geneva.
1918—*No award*
1919—Woodrow Wilson, America.
1920—Leon Bourgeois, France.
1921—K. H. Branting, Sweden & Christian L. Lange, Norway.
1922—F. Nansen, Norway.
1923-24—*No award* ..
1925—Gen. Dawes, America and Sir Austen Chamberlin, Eng.
1926—Aristide Briand, France and G. Stresemann, Germany.
1927—F. Buisson, France and Ludwig Quidde, Germany.
1928—*No award.*
1929—F. B. Kellogg, America.
1930—Dr. N. Soderblom, Sweden.
1931—Miss Jane Addams & Dr. N. M. Butler, America.
1932—*No award.*
1933—Norman Angell, England.
1934—A. Henderson, England.
1935—Carl von Ossietosky, Germany.
1936—C. S. Lamas, Argentine.
1937—Viscount Cecil, England.
1938—Nansen International Office for Refugees, Geneva.
1939-43—*No award.*
1944—International Committee of Red Cross, Switzerland.
1945—Cordel Hull, U.S.A.
1946—Emily G. Balch & John Mott, U.S.A.
1947—Friends Service Council, London and American Service Committee, U.S.A.
1948—*No award.*

BIRTH-STONES

January	Garnet	August	Peridot or Sardonyz
February	Amethyst		
March	Bloodstone	Sept.	Sapphire
April	Diamond	Oct.	Opal or Tourmaline
May	Emerald		
June	Pearl or moonstone	Nov.	Topaz
July	Ruby	Dec.	Turquoise or Lapislazuli

INDIAN STONES AGAINST PLANETARY ACTIONS

Sun (*Ravi*) ..	Ruby	Saturn (*Shani*) ..	Sapphire
Mars (*Mangal*) ..	Coral	Ascending Node (*Ruhoo*) ..	Gomed
Moon (*Chandra*) ..	Pearl	Descending Node (*Ketoo*) ..	Cat's eye
Mercury (*Budh*) ..	Emerald		
Jupiter (*Brihaspati*)	Pokraj		
Venus (*Sukra*) ..	Diamond		

FAMOUS DIAMONDS

	Carats		*Carats*
Cullinan (1905)	3,106	Tiffany	969
Kohinoor	$106^{1}/_{16}$	Victoria (now Nizam) ..	$457\frac{1}{2}$
Orlov	$194\frac{3}{4}$	Star of S. Africa	$350^{1}/_{8}$
Florentine	$133^{1}/_{6}$	Hope	$45^{3}/_{8}$
Regent or Pitt	$137\frac{7}{8}$		

SPEED OF BIRDS

	m.p.h.		*m.p.h.*		*m.p.h.*
Swift upto ..	200	Eagle	120	Sparrow ..	35
Hawk	180	Pigeon	100	Pheasant ..	30
Falcon	150	Humming bird ..	55	Partridge ..	30
Swallow	125	Robin	36		

ANIMAL RECORDS

Tallest Animal—Giraffe.
Largest land animal—Elephant.
Fastest Bird—Swift, sometimes flies 200 miles per hour.
Largest quadruped of the dog family—Wolf.
Largest animal of the cat family—Lion.
Largest of man-like or anthropoid apes—Gorilla.
Largest of the sea birds—Albatross.
Fastest animal—Cheetah.
Largest bird—Ostrich.
Largest sea animal—Blue Whale.
Smallest Bird—Humming bird.
Longest lived creature—Blue Whale. (500 years).
Largest of the flat fish—Halibut.
Longest neck—Giraffe.

LONGIVITY OF BIRDS

	Years		*Years*		*Years*
Crow	100	Peacock ..	24	Partridge ..	15
Parrot	100	Crane	24	Pheasant ..	15
Vulture	100	Canary	24	Goldfinch ..	15
Stork	70	Pigeon	20	Hen	14
Pelican	50	Nightingale ..	18	Robin	12
Sparrow	40			Jackdaw ..	10

LONGEVITY OF TREES

	Years.		*Years.*
Larch tree	800	American Redwood tree ..	4,000
Fire tree	1,200	Baobab tree	4,000

BIG PARKS

	Acres		*Acres*
Hyde Park (London) ..	400	Bois de Boulogne (Paris) ..	2,160
Phoenix Park (Dublin) ..	1,760	Prater (Vienna) ..	2,300
		Maidan (Calcutta) ..	1,000

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BIG WORLD FAIRS

	Days Opened	Visitors.		Days Opened	Visitors.
London (1851)	141	6,039,195	Paris (1900)	..	39,000,000
Paris (1855)	200	5,162,330	San Francisco (1915) ..	288	18,871,957
London (1862)	171	6,211,103	Wembley (1924)	165	27,900,000
Paris (1867)	210	10,000,000	Chicago (1933-4)	329	38,626,564
Vienna (1873)	186	7,254,687	New York (1939-40) ..	340	44,932,534
Paris (1878)	194	16,032,725			
Chicago (1893)	179	27,529,400			

NATIONAL AND STATE FLOWERS

China ..	Narcissus.	Japan ..	Chrysanthemum.
England ..	Rose.	Scotland ..	Thistle.
France ..	Fleur-de-lis.	Spain ..	Pomegranate.
Germany ..	Cornflower.	U. S. A. ..	Golden rod.
Greece ..	Violet.	Persia ..	Rose.
India ..	Lotus.	Wales ..	Leek or Daffodils.
Ireland ..	Shamrock.	Prussia ..	Linden.
Italy ..	Lily.	Canada ..	Sugar Maple leaf.
Mexico ..	Cactus.	Egypt ..	Lotus.
Switzerland ..	Edelweiss	Holland ..	Tulip.

RAILWAYS RECORDS

World's longest Non-stop run	*'Flying Scotsman'*—King's Cross to Edinburgh, 392½ miles.
World's largest escalator ..	Leicester Square Under-ground Station: 161 ft. long with rise of 80 ft. 6 in.
World's largest covered goods station ..	Bristol (Temple Meads).
World's busiest Railway Junction	Clapham (Eng.) Junction—2,500 trains in every 24 hours.
Shortest Private Railway ..	Railway of the Pope in Vatican City; only 1/3 of a mile.
Shortest Public Railway ..	Easingwold Ry. 2½ miles; England.
Largest Underground Station	In Berlin—opened in 1930 with 9 separate entrances and 8 moving stair-cases.
Longest Railway Tunnel ..	Simplon (Switzerland-Italy) 12 m. 560 ft.
Longest Railway Bridge ..	Lower Zambesi (Africa), 12,064 ft.
Longest Stretch of straight railway	Trans-continental Rly. of Australia is a dead straight of 328 miles across Nullarbor plain.
Highest Railway	Antofagasta and Bolivia Railway attains altitudes of 15,843 ft.
Fastest Narrow Gauge Train	In Java, State Railway 49·08 miles per hour.
World's most northernly Rly.	At King's Bog, Spitsbergen, 750 miles from North Pole.
Longest Railway platform ..	Sonepur (O. T. Ry.), India 2,415 ft.
World's highest railway bridge	Fades Viaduct (France); 434 ft.

HIGHEST RAILWAYS

1. Antofagasta & Bolivian Railway 15,843 ft.
2. Peruvian Central Railway attains 15,583 ft.
3. Peruvian Southern, 14,668 ft.
4. Manitou & Pikes Peak U.S.A. 14,109 ft.
5. Denver & Rio Grandi, 10,856 ft.

RAILWAYS GAUGES

1.	Great Britain, Canada, U. S. A., Mexico, Peru, Egypt, China, Norway, Sweden, Denmark	4 ft. 8½ in.
2.	Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain and Switzerland	4 ft. 0 in.
3.	Ireland	5 ft. 3 in.
4.	India, Argentine and Chile	5 ft. 6 in.
5.	Spain, Portugal	5 ft. 5¼ in.
6.	New Zealand, Nigeria, S. Africa, Japan and Sudan	3 ft. 6 in.
7.	Eastern Countries of Africa and Belgium Congo	3 ft. 3⅜ in.

SIZE OF PRINTING PAPER

Foolscap	16½×13½ ins.	Medium	23 ×18 ins.
Double Foolscap	27 ×17 „	Royal	26 ×20 „
Double Crown	30 ×20 „	Super Royal	27½×20½ „
Demy	18 ×22 „	Elephant	28 ×23 „
D. Demy	22 ×36 „	Imperial	30 ×22 „

PRINTING TYPES

The unit of measurement of the point system is the 'point' which is 1/12 of an em (pica). Six ems=1 inch, so 72 points=1 inch.

The old system of type measurement has now been replaced by the modern point system and all sizes of types now in common use are of an even number of points in body size.

The following table will give the size of some of the types from 6 to 72 points.

Old Name	*Pt. body*	*Old Name*	*Pt. body*
Minikin	3 point	Paragon	20 point
Brilliant	3½ „	2-line Sm. Pica	22 „
Gem	4 „	2-line Pica	24 „
Diamond	4½ „	2-line English	28 „
Pearl	5 „	5-line Nonpareil	30 „
Ruby	5½ „	3 line Small Pica	32 „
Nonpareil	6 „	2-line Great Primer	36 „
Minion	7 „	Double Paragon	40 „
Brevier	8 „	7-line Nonpareil	42 „
Bourgeois	9 „	4-line Sm. Pica	44 „
Long Primer	10 „	4-line Pica	48 „
Small Pica	11 „	5-line Sm. Pica	54 „
Pica	12 „	5-line Pica	60 „
English	14 „	6-line Pica	72 „
Great Primer	18 „		

The standard height of printing type is 11/12 inch. One pound of 12 point type arranged in a line would measure approximately 19 inches in length. From this it would be possible to calculate the approximate weight of type required for a book job if we know the body of the type, the width of each line and the number of lines to page.

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HIGHEST RAILWAY BRIDGES

	ft.		ft.
Fades Viaduct (France) ..	434	Loa (Bolivia)	336
Victoria Falls (South Africa)	420	Assopos (Greece)	330
Gurabid (France)	400	Pecos (S. Pacific)	321
Viain (France)	377	Goktiek (Burma)	320

LONGEST RAILWAY BRIDGES

	Feet		Feet
Lower Zambesi (Africa) ..	12,064	Forth (Scotland)	8,300
Tay (Scotland)	11,652	Rio Saldo (Argentina) ..	7,703
Sone (India)	10,052	Mahanadi (India) ..	6,912
Godavari (India) ..	9,096		

WORLD OF OIL

Crude Petroleum
- Fuel oil
- Diesel oil
- Lubricating oil

Petrol (or power oil)

Vegetable

Olive oil
- Coconut oil
- Palm oil
- Copra

Fish
- Whale oil (Sperm)
- Meuhaden oil
- Cod-liver oil

WEIGHTS & MEASURES

EFFECT OF HEAT ON VARIOUS SUBSTANCES

Degrees of Fahrenheit.		*Degrees of Fahrenheit.*	
2,786	Cast iron melts.	173	Alcohol boils.
1,996	Copper melts.	151	Beeswax melts.
1,947	Gold melts.	145	White of an egg begins to coagulate.
773	Zinc melts.	122	Mutton suet melts.
644	Mercury boils.	115	Pure tallow melts.
617	Pure lead melts.	112	Spermaceti and stearim of lard melts.
442	Tin melts.	98	Temperature of the blood.
315	Oil Turpentine boils.	95	Ether boils, carbolic acid crystals become oily liquid.
212	Water begins to boil.	32	Water freezes.
211	Alloy of 5 bismuth, 3 tin, 2 lead melts.	5	Cold produced by snow—2 parts, salt—I part.
201	Alloy of 8 bismuth, 5 lead, 3 tin melts.	37·9	Mercury freezes.
180	(about Starch forms a gelatinous compound with water.		
176	Rectified spirit boils.		

Miscellaneous Measures

Nautical mile	=6080 ft. (1·15 mile statute)	Palm	= 3 inches
League	= 3 miles	Hand	= 4 inches
Inch	=72 points or 12 lines	Foot	=12 inches
Nail	= 2 inches	Cubit	=18 inches
		Yard	=36 inches
		Pace, military	= 2 point 6 in.

CSL

Fathom = 6 ft.
Rod, Pole or Perch = 5½ yds.
Chain =22 yds.
Cables' Length =100 fathoms, 600ft.
Furlong =40 Rods, 220 yds.
Mile = 8 furlongs 80 ins.

Appoximate Equivalents

1 centemetre =About 0·4 inch
1 metre = „ 1·1 yd.
1 kilometre = „ 0·6 mile
1 inch = „ 2·5 centemetres
1 yard = „ 0·9 metre
1 mile = „ 1·6 kilometre

ROMAN NUMERALS

I = 1
II = 2
III = 3
IV = 4
V = 5
VI = 6
VII = 7
VIII = 8
IX = 9
X = 10
XI = 11
XII = 12
XIII = 13
XIV = 14
XV = 15
XVI = 16
XVII = 17
XVIII = 18
XIX = 19
XX = 20
XXX = 30
XL = 40
L = 50
LX = 60
LXX = 70
LXXX = 80
LC = 90
C =100
CC =200
CCC =300
CCCC =400
D =500
DC =600
DCC =700
DCCC =800
CM = 900
M =1000
MCM =1900
MM =2000

SPECIFIC GRAVITIES

(As compared with weight of water of the same volume)

Alcohol	0·79	Ivory	1·83
Aluminium	2·67	Lead	11·35
Beer	1·02	Marble	2·70
Blood	1·06	Mercury	13·60
Brandy	0·84	Milk	1·03
Brass	8·00	Olive oil	0·92
Chalk	1·00	Petroleum	0·88
Clay	1·09	Platinum	21·45
Copper	8·94	Silver	10·51
Cork	0·24	Sodium	0·97
Earth	1·60	Steel	7·75
Glass	2·89	Tin	7·29
Glycerine	1·26	Turpentine	0·87
Gold	19·32	Urine	1·01
Gun powder	0·93	Water	1·00
Honey	1·45	Wood, Ceder	0·61
Ice	0·92	Wood, Ebony	1·33
Iridium	22·38	Wood, Mehogony	1·06
Iron, cast	7·20	Wood, Oak	1·17
Iron, Wrought	7·79	Zinc	7·19

Bazar Weights

5 sikis or ¼ Rs. =1 kancha
4 kanchas =1 chatack.
4 chataks or 20 tolas =1 powa.
4 powas =1 seer.
5 seers =1 possuri.
40 seers =1 maund.

Official Weights

4 punkos =1 dhan.
4 dhans =1 rati.
8 ratis =1 masha.
12 mashas =1 tola.
5 tolas =1 chatak.
16 chataks =1 seer.
5 seers =1 pansari.
40 seers =1 maund.

Bazar seer=80 tolas; Factory seer=72⅝ tolas; Indian maund=82-2/7 lbs.; Bazar maund=82 lbs. 2 oz. 3 drs.

To convert Indian into Avoirdupois, multiply the weight in seers by 72 and divide by 35, the result will be lb. Avoirdupois. By reversing the operation, Avoirdupois may be converted into seers and maunds. A ton=27¼ mds. To convert bazar into factory weight add one-tenth and deduct one-third of the total from itself, the remainder will be cwt.

Lineal Measure

In Bengal—
1 hath (cubic)=18 inches.
4 haths=1 danda or 2 yds.
8,000 haths=1 cross.

Indian Jewellers Weight

4 dhans=1 rati.
6 ratis=1 anna.
8 ratis=1 masha.
12 mashes
or 16 as.=1 tola or bhari.

Land Measure

In Bengal—
45 sq. ft. or
5 sq. yds. =1 chatak.
16 chataks =1 catta or 80 sq. yds.
20 cattas 1 bigha or 14,400 sq. ft. or 1,600 sq. yds.
3,140 bighas =1 acre.
1,936 bighas =1 sq. mile.
In U.P.—
1 bigha =3,927 sq. yds.
In Bombay—
1 bigha =6,400 sq. yds.
In Punjab—
1 bigha =1,620 sq. yds.

Cloth Measure

3 jobs =1 unguli=¾ in.
3 ungulis=1 gira=2¼ in.
8 giras =1 hath=18 in.
2 haths =1 gunz=1 yd.

Lineal Measure

4 inch =1 hand.
3 „ =1 span.
12 „ =1 foot.
3 feet =1 yard.
5 „ =1 place.
6 „ =1 fathom.
5½ yds. =1 rod, pole or perch
4 poles =1 chain.
10 chains. =1 furlong.
8 furlongs =1 mile.
3 metres =1 league.

Linear Measure

12 inches =1 foot.
3 feet =1 yard.
6 feet =1 fathom.
40 rods =1 furlong.

Avoirdupois Weight

16 drams =1 ounce.
16 ounces =1 pound.
28 pounds =1 quarter.
4 qrs. (cwt.)=1 hundredweight
20 hundredweights=1 ton.

Apothecaries Weight

By weight
20 grains =1 scruple.
3 scruples =1 dram.
8 drams =1 ounce.
12 ounces =1 pound.

By capacity
60 minims =1 fluid dram.
8 fluid drams =1 fluid ounce.
20 fluid ounces =1 pint.
8 pints =1 gallon.

Land Measure

12 inch= 1 foot
36 inch= 3 feet= 1 yd.
198 inch= 16½ feet= 5¼ yd. = 1 rod or pole.
792 inch= 66 feet= 22 yd. = 1 rod=1 chain.
7,920 inch= 660 feet= 220 yd. = 40 rods=10 chains=1 furlong.
63,360 inch=5,280 feet=1,760 yd. =320 rods=80 chains=8 furlongs =1 mile.

Nautical Measures

6 feet =1 fathom
100 fathoms =1 cable length.
10 cables. =1 nautical mile.
60 nautical miles =1 degree.

Time Measures

60 seconds =1 minute.
60 minutes =1 hour.
24 hours =1 day.
7 days =1 week.
31 days =1 calendar month.
12 calendar months =1 year.
365¼ days =1 year.
360 days =1 leap year.
100 years =1 century.

Indian Time Measures

60 annupals =1 bipal.
60 bipals =1 pal.
60 pals =1 danda.
7½ dandas or 3 hours = prahar.
60 dandas or 8 prahars =1 din.
30 dins =1 mash.
12 mashes =1 batsar.
12 batsars =1 yuga.

Meaning of Words

milli—one-thousandth.
centi—one-hundredth.
deci—one-tenth.
deka—ten.
hecto—one hundred.
kilo—one thousand.
metre—for length.
gram—for weight or mass.
litre—for capacity.

Electrical Definitions

Volt—is the measurement of pressure of current.

Ampere—is the measurement of volume of current flowing through. Ampheres develop heat; if any machine is using more amperes than marked on the fuses, fuses may burn out.

Circuit—is that part of the equipment which is intended to carry electric current, such as copper wires, resistance wires, switches etc. They are all insulated from the machine.

Watt—is the measurement of power and is, volts multiplied by ampheres.

A *Kilowatt* is 1,000 watts.

A *Kilowatt hour* or one unit is one kilowatt of power used for one hour. One horse power is represented by 746 watts used one hour.

Earth is a base part of the electric circuit accidentally touching the machine.

Short circuit—is one or more earths which allow the current to take a shorter path.

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BOILING POINTS OF CHEMICAL ELEMENTS

(Degrees, Centrigrade)

Elements	*C°*	*Elements*	*C°*
Antimony	1,380	Manganese	1,900
Barium	1,140	Neon	—245·8
Bromide	—58·8	Nitrogen	—195
Bismuth	1,450	Ozone	—112
Chlorine	—34·7	Phosphorus	—280
Copper	2,300	Platinum	4,300
Helium	—268·9	Potassium	760
Hydrogen	—252·8	Sodium	880
Iodine	184·3	Sulphur	444
Iron	3,000	Tin	2,270
Lead	1,620	Tungsten	5,900
Magnesium	1,100	Zinc	930

WORLD POPULATION

(Monthly Bulletin of Statistics issued by Statistical Office of United Nations, April Number, 1947)

Argentina	13,386,000	Italy	46,521,000
[1]Australia	7,449,000	Japan	73,114,000
Belgium	8,345,000	Korea	24,326,000
Bolivia	3,723,000	Mexico	22,227,000
Brazil	46,200,000	Netherlands	9,415,000
[2]Canada	12,307,000	[6]New Zealand	1,659,000
Ceylon	6,276,000	Nicaragua	1,082,000
Chili	5,390,000	Norway	3,040,000
Colombia	9,792,000	Palestine	1,912,000
Costa Rica	747,000	[7]Panama	622,000
Cuba	4,779,000	Paraguay	1,108,000
[3]Czechoslovakia	12,003,000	[8]Peru	6,838,000
[4]Denmark	4,012,000	Poland	23,911,000
Dominician Republic	1,970,000	[9]Portugal	8,223,000
Equador	3,241,000	El Salvador	1,987,000
Eire	2,982,000	[10]South Africa	2,336,000
Egypt	17,423,000	[11]Spain	27,246,000
Finland	3,877,000	Sweden	6,636,000
France	39,600,000	Switzerland	4,403,000
Guatimala	3,547,000	United Kingdom	47,175,000
Honduras	1,201,000	U. S.	140,840,000
Iceland	127,000	Urugay	2,250,000
[5]India	310,625,000	[12]Venezuela	4,189,000

1. Excluding Aboriginals. 2. Exluding Yukon and N. W. Territories, Estimated population 17,000. 3. Comprising Bohemia, Moravia, Slovakia and Czech Silesia. 4. Excluding Faroe Islands. 5. British India only. 6. Excluding Maori Population, Estimated at 98,000. 7. Excluding tribal Indians estimated at 56,000 8. Excluding inhabitants of jungle area, Estimated at 350,000. 9. Including Madira and Azores. 10. European population only, Tribal population in 1946 estimated at 11,259,000. 11. Including Balearics and Canary Islands. 12. Excluding tribal Indian, estimated at 100,000.

*The estimated population of China in 1946 is over 455,000,000.

Jewish Population of the World (1939)

Europe	10,000,000	Africa	600,000
America	5,375,000	Australasia	33,000
Asia	830,000	Total	16,838,00

Arab Population of the World

Arab, North Africa, Morocco, Levant and Iraq	45,490,000

U. S. Population

All classes	131,669,275	Foreign born	11,419,138
White	118,214,870	Negro	12,865,518
Native	106,795,732	Other races	588,887

Highest Population Densities

(Per Square Mile)

Monaco	38,453·0	Germany	460·1
Vatican City	5,705·9	Italy	382·4
Netherlands	743·1	Hungary	301·2
Belgium	709·6	Korea	285·4
United Kingdom	501·9	India	341
Japan	495·7	Czechoslovakia	283·9

World Population

Africa	147,900,066	North America (*c*)	174,202,223
Asia (*a*)	1,067,222,353	South America	83,855,189
Europe (*a*)	389,801,037	Oceania (*a*)	76,594,066
U. S. S. R. (*b*)	211,384,985		
			2,150,959,919

City Population

London	8,650,000	Tokio	3,276,000
New York	7,986,000	Leningrad	3,191,304
Paris	6,657,859	Yokohama	2,652,988
Berlin	4,299,318	Calcutta	2,108,891
Moscow	4,137,018	Buenos Aires	3,150,000
Shanghai	4,274,486	Philadelphia	1,950,961
Osaka	3,394,200	Vienna	1,924,269
Chicago	3,376,438		

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*(*a*) Excluding U.S.A. (*b*) In Europe and Asia (*c*) Including Mexico and Caribbean (*d*) Includes Australia, New Zealand, Netherlands East Indies and certain Br. Possessions.

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THE WORLD GAZETTEER

(A BRIEF GUIDE TO THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD)

Abyssinia—Inland State in N.-E. Africa; area 350,000 sq. m. Pop. 7,500,000. Conquered by Italy in 1936. Re-conquered by the Emperor with the help of the British. Capital *Adis Ababa.*

Afghanistan—A mountainous Moslem *kingdom* lying between Pakistan, Iran and Soviet Union, area 250,000 sq. m. Pop. about 10 millions. The Government is constitutional monarchy. Legislative power is vested in a parliament consisting of the King, a Senate of 40 members and a National Assembly of 120 elected members. The main routes to Pakistan are passes through the mountains, the chief being Khyber from Kabul and Bolan from Kandahar. There is no rail road in Afghanistan. Capital—*Kabul.*

Albania—Balkan Republic; was incorporated in Italy in 1939 but now a free republic; area 10,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,000,000. Capital—*Tirana.*

Anglo-Egyptian Sudan—is bounded by Libya and Egypt; area—969,000 sq. m. Pop. 6,342,447. Capital—*Khartoum.*

Andorra—Republic of Europe in the Pyrenees Mountains under the suzerainty of France and Spanish Bishop of Urgel; area 175 sq. m. Pop. 6,000. Capital—*Andorra.*

Arabia—A country at south-extremity of Asia, was a single political unit, now comprises the following States—Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Oman, Aden, Hadhramut, Bahrein Islands, Yemen and Muscat.

Argentina—Second largest S. American Republic; area 1,079,965 sq. m. Pop. 14,130,871. Capital—*Buenos Aires.* Government Federal Union.

Australia—Federal Commonwealth of British Empire; area 3,000,000 sq. m. Pop. 7,196,000. Capital—*Canberra.*

Austria—Was a part of Greater Germany but now a Democratic Republic at the end of World War II; area 34,000 sq. m. Pop. 7,009,000. Capital—*Vienna.*

Belgium—North-west European Kingdom; area 11,795 sq. m. Pop. 8,213,443,. Belgium is the most densely populated country in Europe, having 710 inhabitants to the sq. m., government is constitutional hereditary monarchy. Capital—*Brussels.*

Bhutan—Area about 17,750 sq. m. Bhutan is a semi-independent Indian State having control of its internal affairs. The inhabitants are Mongolians and follow Buddhism. Agriculture is the chief industry. Capital—*Punakha.*

Bolivia—South American Republic located in the west central portion of the South America; area 416,040 sq. m. Pop. 3,533,900. Capital—*La Paz.*

Brazil—Federal Union in eastern South America and largest country in South America and occupies more than half of South America; It is world leader in the production of coffee and its Amazon river is the longest single stream in the world. It is most populous of Latin American nations; area 3,291,416 sq. m. Pop. 45,300,000. Government—Federal Union. Capital—*Rio de Janerio.*

Bulgaria—Balkan Republic; area 42,848 sq. m. Pop. 7,020,863. Capital—*Sofia.*

Burma—A free republic since 1948 outside the British Commonwealth by a treaty signed in London, on Oct. 17, 1947, (effective from Jan. 6, 1948); area 261,610. Pop. 14,669,146. Capital—*Rangoon.*

Canada—Federal Union and a self-governing dominion of the British Empire; area 3,648,500 sq. m. Pop. 11,012,734. Capital—*Ottawa.*

China—Republic of Asia since 1912; occupies a vast area in south-east Asia; area 4,480,000 sq. m. most densely populated country in the world. The National Government is a Committee form of government composed of a National Government Council or State Council, whose Chairman is known as President of the National Government and five Yuans. Pop. (China proper) 461,006,134. Capital—*Nanking.*

Ceylon—Acquired dominion status from 1948; area 25,322 sq. m. Capital—*Colombo.*

Colombia—South American Republic located in north-west South America; area 440,000 sq. m. Pop. 9,002,000. Capital—*Bogota.*

Chile—A democratic State of South America; area 286,322 sq. m. Pop. 5,164,984. World's largest copper reserve is in Chile. Capital—*Santiago.*

Costa Rica—Central American Republic; area 23,000 sq. m. Pop. 725,000. Capital—*San Jose.*

Cuba—The 'Pearl of Antilles' is the largest island in the West Indies; area 44,164 sq. m. Pop. 5,051,850. It is the second largest cane producer in the world. Capital—*Havana.*

Czechoslovakia—Republic of Central Europe that rose after the World War I, comprising areas formerly belonging to Austria-Hungary; Czechoslovakia possesses one of the richest territories in Europe, both in the matter of natural resources and industrial developments; area 49,000 sq. m. Pop. 13,047,000. Capital—*Prague.*

Danzig—Free city of; became a free city under the League of Nations; was occupied by Germany in the war against Poland (1939); area 754 sq. m. Pop. 497,550.

Denmark—Kingdom of north Europe; Danish dairy products are world famous and the country in normal times exports more butter than any in the world; area 16,570 sq. m. Pop. 3,949,000. Capital—*Copenhagen.*

Dominician Republic—Part of the Island of San Domingo and lies east of Cuba between Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea; area 19,300 sq m. Pop. 1,022,000. Capital—*Cuidad Trujilo.*

Eire—Is a sovereign independent state associated for certain purposes with British Commonwealth of Nations. The Government of Eire is bicameral with a President elected directly by the people for a term of seven years; a House of Representatives called Dail Eireann and a Senate; area 26,601. Pop. 2,968,420. Capital—*Dublin.*

Ecuador—Republic of South America in the Pacific coast; area 118,627 sq. m. Pop. 3,430,000. Capital—*Quito.*

Egypt—An independent Kingdom of N.-E. Africa; area 385,000 sq. m. Pop. 15,904,525. Egypt became British protectorate in 1914 and remained under British flag until 1922. Now a free country under a sovereign. Capital—*Cairo.*

England—Southern part of Great Britain; area 50,474 sq. m. Pop. 0,000. Capital—*London.*

Estonia—Baltic State, was formerly under Russian protectorate; was incorporated in Soviet Russia in 1940; area 18,500 sq. m. Pop. 1,116,500. Capital—*Tallinin.*

Finland—Republic in Northern Europe with coastline on Baltic; fringed by islands and dotted with lakes; was proclaimed an independent state in July 29, 1917 and a republic on October 5 of the same year; area 134,324 sq. m. Pop. 3,716,000. Capital—*Helsinki.*

France—A new constitution was passed in 1946 establishing Fourth Republic; area 212,659 sq. m. Pop. 40,517,923. Capital—*Paris.*

Germany—Central European state now under Allied control; area 143,200 sq. m. Pop. 67,032,242. Capital—*Berlin.* The Germany is divided into four zones of occupation occupied by U. S. S. R., Great Britain, France and United States.

Greece—is located on Balkan peninsula in south-western Europe; area 50,000 sq. m. Pop. 7,450,000. Capital—*Athens.*

Guatemala—Republic of Central America; area 42,353 sq. m. Pop. 3,450,372. Capital—*Guatemala City.*

Haiti—Republic. It occupies the western half of the island known as Hispaniola, the second largest of the greater Antilles. It is the only Negro republic in the Western Hemesphere; area 10,714 sq. m. Pop. 3,500,000. Capital—*Port au Prince.*

Honduras—Republic of Central America; area 46,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,000,000. Capital—*Tegucigalpa.*

Hungary—European Republic formed out of Austro-Hungary; It is the abode of the Magyars; area 35,875 sq. m. Pop 9,309,262. Capital—*Budapest.*

Iceland—Island in the North Atlantic Ocean, now republic; It is close to the Arctic circle in the North Atlantic; area 40,479. Pop. 132,000. Capital—*Reykjavik.*

India—It is now self-governing Republic from 15th August 1947. Capital—*New Delhi.*

Indo-China—281,000 sq. m. Pop. 24,000,000. French dependency consisting of five parts, Cochin-china, Annam, Cambodia, Tonking and Laos. The whole territory is governed by a Governor-General.

Indonesian Republic—is comprised of East Indies Islands of Java, Sumatara and Madura, the former Dutch colonies. Netherlands Government granted recognition of the Republic in the Chariban Agreement (March 25, 1947) and full independence has been promised by Jan. 1, 1949; area 218,365 sq. m. Pop. 55,710,000. Capital—*Jogjakarta.*

Iran—Kingdom of Western Asia, formerly known as Persia; area 628,000 sq. m. Pop. 17,000,000. Capital—*Teheran.*

Israel—on the 14th April 1948 first Independent Jewish State for 2,000 years was proclaimed in Tel Aviv by Jewish National Council. Capital—*Tel Aviv.*

Iraq—Formerly known as Mesopotamia; now one of the states lying between Arabia and Persia; created as a result of World War I; area 126,600 sq. m. Pop. 4,500,000. Capital—*Bagdad.*

Italy—Republic of Europe, stretching from the Alps south-east into Mediterranean with the islands of Sicily, Sardania, Elba and 70 smalle ones; It became republic in 1946; area 119,800 sq. m. Pop. 45,646,00 Capital—*Rome.*

Japan—Island Empire of Asia; is situated in the North Pacific Ocean off the coast of China and Siberia; area 147,492 sq. m. Pop. 78,220,840. It is now under the control of Allied powers. Occupation is to continue until the democratic objectives had been attained with the adoptation of the new constitution. A new constitution was promulgated by Japanese government in March 6, 1947, which placed "sovereignty squarely in the hands of people. It strips the Emperor of all pretension of 'divinity.'" Capital—*Tokio.*

Korea—It is now an independent state; area 85,246 sq. m. Pop. 24,326,327. Capital—*Seul.*

Latvia—Baltic Republic; area 25,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,950,000. Capital—*Riga.*

Liberia Republic of—Independent Negro Republic of Western Africa on the Guinea Coast; area 43,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,600,000. Capital—*Monrovia.*

Leichtenstein—65 sq. m. Pop. 11,138, is principality between Austria and Switzerland. Capital—*Vaduz.*

Luxemberg, Grand Duchy of—Area 999 sq. m. Luxemberg is a European Grand Duchy situated between Germany, Belgium and France. It was given its present rank as principality by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Capital—*Luxemburg.*

Lithunia—Baltic Republic situated in northern Europe; incorporated in Soviet Russia in 1940; area 22,959 sq. m. Pop. 879,070. Capital—*Kovna.*

Lebanon—Is now an independent State; area 3,475 sq. m. Pop. 1,025,000.

Manchuria—Area 503,013 sq. m. Pop. 36,947,972; was a 'puppet' state of Japan, but gained its independence after defeat of Japan in 1945. Capital—*Hsinking.*

Mexico—A Federal republic in N. and S. America; area 760,000 sq. m. Pop. 22,776,041. Mexico has a great mineral wealth and produces petroleum, silver, gold, copper, lead, quicksilver, iron and coal. She is the world leader for the production of silver, sisal hemp and chicle for chewing gum. Capital—*Mexico City.*

Monaco—A tiny independent principality in south of France; is located on the Mediterranean with land frontiers joining France at every point; area 7·99 sq. m. Pop. 23,97. Capital—*Monaco.*

Morocco—A country of North Africa. The Empire theoretically is an absolute monarchy, but the country is divided into three zones—the French, the Spanish and the neutral Tangier area. The country is under French protectorate which encompasses the whole of Morocco from Algerian frontier to the Atlantic Ocean and from Sahara Desert in the south to the boundary of the Spanish zone in the north. The Spanish zone is the northern strip; area 172,104 sq. m. Pop. 9,082,900. Capital—*Rabat.*

Nepal—A land-locked country, lying between India and Tibet. Nepal has two great distinctions of containing Mt. Everest, 29,002 (ft.) the tallest mountain peak of the world and some of the toughest fighting men in the world—Gurkhas; area 54,000 sq. miles. Pop. 5,600,000. Capital—*Katmandu.*

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Netherlands—Kingdom of in North-western Europe, area 13,514 sq. m. Pop. 9,076,000. Capital—*Amsterdam.*

Newfoundland—is the oldest British colony at the eastern end of British America in the Atlantic Ocean; area 42,734 sq. m. Pop. 265,000. Capital—*St. Johns.*

New Zealand—British Dominion group in South Pacific; area 104,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,640,401. Capital—*Wellington.*

Nicaragua—Central American Republic; area 60,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,108,000. Capital—*Managua.*

Northern Ireland—Comprising six counties of Ulster; area 5,237 sq. miles. Capital—*Belfast.*

Norway—Kingdom of North Europe; area 124,556 sq. m. Pop. 3,105,000. In the North Cape area is sun the phenomenon known as *midnight sun.* Capital—*Oslo.*

Pakistan—A new Muslim State within Indian Sub-Continent with dominion status from 15th August, 1947, consisting of East Bengal, Western Punjab, Sind, N.W.F. Province and Baluchistan. Pop. 70,000,000. Capital—*Karachi.*

Palestine—Formerly belonging to Turkey, was administered by Great Britain under mandate from League of Nations which she had relinquished in 1948; The proposal for division of Palestine in Jewish and Arab State has been accepted by the U. N. O. Area 10,000 sq. m. Pop. 1,912,000. Capital—*Jerusalem.*

Panama Republic of—Area 336,667 sq. m. It occupies the entire Isthmus of that name connecting North and South America. Capital—*Panama.*

Paraguay, Republic of—South American Republic; Area—154,165 sq. m. Pop. 1,200,000. Capital—*Asuncion.*

Peru—Republic of South America situated on the Pacific coast of South America; area 482,133 sq. m. Pop. 7,395,687. Capital—*Lima.*

Poland—Independent Republic of E. Europe; area 120,818 sq. m. Pop. 23,930,000. Republic was formed following the world war of reunited parts of the old kingdom dismembered about 150 years ago by Russia, Austria and Prussia. Capital—*Warsaw.*

Philippines, Republic of—is the largest island group in the Malaya Archipelago. The independence of the Philippines was proclaimed on July 4, 1946 in accordance to the Act passed in the American Congress in 1934. Area: 114,890 sq. miles; Pop. 19,066,800. Capital—*Quezon City.*

Portugal—Republic of S. W. Europe; area 35,490 sq. m. Pop. 223,000. Capital—*Lisbon.*

Rumania—Independent kingdom of the Balkans; certain area ceded to Russia; area 91,536 sq. m. Pop. 15,686,153. Capital—*Bucharest.*

Russia—Union of Soviet Socialist Republics composed of Russian, Ukrainian, White Russian, Transcaucasian, Turkoman, Tadjakandubeg Republic; area 8,412,345 sq. m. Pop. 195,152,000. It is the largest country in the World, stretches across two continents from the North Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Finland. Vast territory of U.S.S.R., one sixth of the earth's land surface, contains every phase of climate except the distinctly tropical and a varied topography. Capital—*Moscow.*

Salvadar—Republic of Central America; area 13,183 sq. m. Pop. 1,997,169. Capital—*San Salvadar.*

San Marino, Republic of—The oldest and smallest republic in the world. Area 38 sq. m. Pop. 14,547, is situated in the Apennines in the heart of Italy.

Scotland—Northern Division of Great Britain; area 30,406 sq. m. and has been founded in the fourth century. Pop. 4,482,554. ,Capital—*Edinburgh.*

South Africa, Union of—British Dominion; It is the richest gold and diamond producing country in the world. Area 472,550 sq. m. Pop. 11,068,000. Capitals—*Pretoria and Cape Town.*

Spain—Republic of S. W. Europe; area 196,607 sq. m. Pop. 27,246,000. Was proclaimed a republic on April 14,1931. Capital—*Madrid.*

Soudi Arabia—is the most important Kingdom of the vast peninsula known as Arabia, formed in 1932 by the union of Hejaz and Nejd with certain dependencies. Area about 800,000 sq. m. Capital—*Riyadh.*

Sweden—Kingdom of North Europe; area 173,150 sq. m. Pop. 6,597,348. Government is a constitutional monarchy. The legislature has two chambers. Capital—*Stockholm.*

Siam—Kingdom of South-eastern Asia; area 200,150 sq. m. Pop. 15,000,000. Limited monarchy was established in 1932 with full franchise and an elected parliament. Capital—*Bangkok.*

Switzerland—is a confederation of 22 cantons, area 15.980 sq.. m. Pop. 445,000. Capital—*Berne.*

Syria—It is now an independent state. Area: 73,587 sq. m. Pop. 2,800,000. Capital—*Damascus.*

Tibet—A lofty land of Central Asia, lying N. and N. E. of the Himalayas, mainly a high table-land. Nominally a Chinese dependency it is practically independent under the rule of Dalai Lama. The trade with India is mostly carried on through various passes. Area 463,200 sq. m. Capital—*Lhassa.*

Transjordan—Independent State from 1946; Emir administers the country under a council of advisers; Area 34,740 sq. m. Pop. 400,000.

Trieste—The free territory of Trieste is bounded in the north by Italy, on the east and south by Yogoslovakia and on the west by the Gulf of Panzano, an arm of the Adriatic Sea. This free territory was set up under the terms of the Peace Treaty with Italy in 1947 and placed under the jurisdiction of the United Nations Security Council.

Turkey—Republic of Asia and Europe; The European territory was reduced to the city of Constantinople and a narrow strip of country around it. Area 296,500 sq. m. Pop. 18,871,000. Capital—*Ankara.*

United States of America—Federal Republic or North America; area 3,750,000 sq. m. Pop. 135,604,000. Capital—*Washington.*

Uruguay—Smallest republic in South America; area 72,173 sq. m. Pop. 2,281,000. Capital—*Montevideo.*

Vatican City—Papal State in Rome under sovereign jurisdiction of Pope; area 108 acres. Pop. 1,025.

Venezuela—is the northern most State of South America; area 352,143 sq. m. Pop. 3,850,771. Capital—*Caracas.*

Yugoslavia—Republic of the Serbs, Croats, Slovenes and territory acquired from Austria and Bulgaria after Great War; area 96,983 sq. m. Pop. 16,261,125. Capital—*Belgrade.*

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RULERS OR HEADS OF GOVERNMENTS OF THE WORLD

Country	*Ruler*	*Executive Head*
Afghanistan	Mohammed Zahir, Shah, K.	Shah Mahomedkhan, P.M.
Arabia—Saudi	Abd-el-Aziz, King.	
Australia	W. J. McKell, G. G.	J. B. Chiefly P.M.
Austria	Dr. Renner P.	
Argentina	Juan Peron P.	
Belgium	King Leopard III	M. Spaak, P.
Burma	Sao Shwe Thaik P.	Thakin Nu, P.M.
Bhutan	Jig-me Wang-chuk.	
Bolivia	Gen. Enrique Penaranda, P.	
Brazil	General Enrico Dutra, P.	
Bulgaria	M. Kolaroff P.	M. Mimitror, P.
Canada	Viscount Alexander G. G.	Louis St. Laurent P.M.
Chile	Gabriel Videla P.	
China	Chiang Kai-shek, P.	Gen. Chan. Chun.
Ceylon		Mr. Senanayake P. M.
Colombia	Dr. Alfonso Lonpez, P.	
Czecho-slovakia	M. Klement Gottwald P.	Antonin Zapopocky P.M.
Danzig	Karl Burckhardt, H. C.	
Denmark	Frederick, King IX	Hans Hedtoft, P.
Egypt	Faruk I, King	
Eire	Sean O'Kelly P.	J. A. Costello, P.M.
Finland	M. Paasikivi, P.	M. Fagerholm, P.M.
France	M. Auriol, P.	M. Queuille, P.M.
Germany	Under Allied occupation	
Gt. Britain	George VI. K.	C. R. Attlee, P.M.
Greece	King Paul I.	M. Maximos, P.M.
Hungary	M. Szakasits	L. Dinnyes, P.M.
Iceland	S. Bjornsson, P.	H. Jornson, P.M.
Iran (Persia)	Mohammed Shah Pahlevi	M. Saed Maraghe, P.M.
Israel	David Ben Gurion P. M.	
India	C. Rajagopalachari G. G.	Pandit J. L. Nehru, P.M.
Indonesia	Dr. I. R. Soekarno, P.	Dr. M. Hata, P.M.
Iraq (Mesopotamia)	Faisal II, King	Nuri es Said.
Italy	Luigi Einaudi P.	Sgr. de Gasperi, P.M.
Japan	Hirohito, Emperor	M. Asida, P.M.
Luxemburg	Charlotte, G. D.	
Liberia	Edwin J. Barclay, P.	Dr. Joseph Hoof, G. G.
Mexico	Emiguel Aleman, P.	
Monaco	Louis II, Prince.	
Morocco	Sidi Mohammed, Sultan	
Nepal	Maharaja Mohan Shamsher J. B. R.	Kaiser Shamsher, J. B. R.
Netherlands	Juliana Q.	William Drees.
Norway	Haakon VII	E. Gerhardsen, P.M.
Pakistan	K. Nazimuddin G. G.	Liaquat Ali Khan, P.M.
Panama	Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia.	
Paraguay	Higino Morinigo, P.	
Peru	Manuel Prado P.	
Philippine Is.	Senor Quirino, President	

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Rulers or Heads of Governments of the World—Concld.

Country	*Ruler*	*Executive Head*
Portugal	Gen. A. Carmona, P.	Dr. O. Salazar.
Poland	M. Beirut, P.	J. Cyrankiewiez, P.M.
Rumania	Dr. Groza, P.M.	
Slovakia	Dr. Tiso, P.	
South Africa	G. B. Van Zyl G.G.	Dr. D. Malan, P.
Spain	General Franco, P.	
Sweden	Gustaf V. King	N. Evlander, P.M.
Switzerland	Dr. Ettert, P.	
Syria	Sheik Tajeddine Hassani, P.	Shukry Kawatly, P.
Siam	Marshal B. Songram (Dictr.)	
Trans-Jordan	Abdullah, Emir.	
Tunis	Sidi, Ahmed, Bey.	
Turkey	Gen. Ismet Inonu, P.	M. Peker, P.M.
U. S. S. R.	Nikolai Shvernik P.	Joseph Stalin.
United States	Henry S. Truman, P.	
Vatican City	Pius XII, Pope S.	
Yugoslavia	Ivan Ribar	Marshal Tito, P.M.

AMERICAN PRESIDENTS

	Name	*Politics*		*Name*	*Politics*
1789-1797	George Washington	Fed.	1869-1877	Ulysses Grant	Rep.
1797-1801	John Adams	Fed.	1877-1881	R. B. Hayes	Rep.
1801-1809	Thomas Jefferson	Rep.	1881	James Garfield	Rep.
1809-1817	James Madison	Rep.	1881-1885	Chester Arthur	Rep.
1817-1825	James Monroe	Rep.	1885-1889	Grover Cleveland	Dem.
1825-1829	John Quincy Adams	Rep.	1889-1893	Benjamin Harrison	Rep.
1829-1837	Andrew Jackson	Dem.	1893-1897	Grover Cleveland	Dem.
1837-1841	Martin Van Buren	Dem.	1897-1901	William McKinley	Rep.
1841	W. H. Harrison	Whig.	1901-1909	Theodore Roosevelt	Rep.
1841-1845	John Taylor	Whig.	1909-1913	William H. Taft	Rep.
1845-1849	James Knox Polk	Dem.	1913-1921	Woodrow Wilson	Dem.
1849-1850	Zachary Taylor	Whig.	1921-1923	W. G. Harding	Rep.
1850-1853	Millard Fillmore	Whig.	1923-1929	Calvin Coolidge	Rep.
1853-1857	Franklin Pierce	Dem.	1929-1933	Herbert C. Hoover	Rep.
1857-1861	James Buchanan	Dem.	1933-1945	F. D. Roosevelt	Dem.
1861-1865	Abraham Lincoln	Rep.	1945	Harry S. Truman	Dem.
1865-1869	Andrew Johnson	Rep.			

BRITISH PRIME MINISTERS

Sir R. Walpole	1721	Earl of Chatham (2nd time)	1766
Earl of Wilmington	1742	Duke of Grafton	1767
Henry Pelham	1743	Lord North	1770
Duke of Newcastle	1754	Marquess of Rockingham (2nd time)	1782
Duke of Devonshire	1756	Earl of Sherburne (afterwards Marquess of Lansdowne)	1782
William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham and Duke of Newcastle)	1757	Duke of Portland	1783
Earl of Bute	1762	William Pitt (the younger)	1783
George Grenville	1763	Henry Addington	1801
Marquess of Rockingham	1765		

William Pitt (2nd time)	1804
Lord Grenville	1806
Duke of Portland (2nd time)	1807
Spencer Perceval	1809
Lord Liverpool	1812
George Canning	1827
Lord Goderich	1827
Duke of Wellington	1828
Earl Grey	1830
Viscount Melbourne	1834
Sir Robert Peel	1834
Viscount Melbourne (2nd time)	1835
Sir Robert Peel (2nd time)	1841
Lord John Russell	1846
Earl of Derby	1852
Earl of Aberdeen	1852
Viscount Palmerston	1855
Earl of Derby (2nd time)	1858
Viscount Palmerston (2nd time)	1859
Earl Russell (2nd time)	1865
Earl of Derby (3rd time)	1866
Benjamin Disraeli	1868
William Ewart Gladstone	1868
Earl of Beaconsfield (2nd time)	1879
W. E. Gladstone (2nd time)	1880
Marquess of Salisbury	1885
W. E. Gladstone (3rd time)	1886
Marquess of Salisbury (2nd time)	1886
W. E. Gladstone (4th time)	1892
Earl of Rosebery	1894
Marquess of Salisbury (3rd time)	1895
Arthur James Balfour	1902
Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman	1905
Herbert Henry Asquith	1908
David Lloyd George	1916
Andrew Bonar Law	1922
Stanley Baldwin	1923
J. Ramsay MacDonald	1924
Stanley Baldwin (2nd time)	1924
J. Ramsay MacDonald (2nd time)	1929
Stanley Baldwin (3rd time)	1935
N. Chamberlain	1937
W. S. Churchill	1940
C. R. Attlee	1945

POLITICAL ASSASSINATIONS

1865—Abraham Lincoln, President U.S.A., April 14.

1872—Earl of Mayo, Governor-General of India.

1876—Abdul Aziz, Sultan of Turkey.

1881—Czar Alexander of Russia and President Garfield (U.S.A.)

1894—President Carnot of France.

1896—Shah Nazr-ud-Din of Persia.

1898—Empress Elizabeth of Austria, September 10.

1900—King Humbert of Italy.

1901—President McKinley of U. S. A., September 6.

1903—King Alexander and Queen Draga of Serbia.

1905—Grand Duke Sergius of Russia.

1908—King Carlos and Crown Prince of Portugal.

1909—Prince Ito of Japan.

1911—Stolypin, Premier of Russia.

1912—Jose Canalajas, Prime Minister of Spain.

1913—King George I of Greece.

1914—Archduke, Francis Ferdinand of Austria, June 28.

1918—Czar Nicholas and his family, July 16.

1918—President Paes of Portugal.

1919—President Kurt Eisner of Bavaria; Amir Habibullah of Afghanistan.

1921—Dato, Premier of Spain.

1922—I. Narutowicz, 1st President of the Polish Republic, June 1.

1922—Michael Collins, Irish Free State Premier.

1928—Ex-President Gen. Alvaro Obregon of Mexico.

1930—Premier Hamaguchi of Japan.

1932—President Doumer of France. Takeshi Inukai, Japanese Premier, May 13.

1933—Emir Faisal, King of Iraq, Sept. 9. Ion Duca, Rumanian Premier, Dec. 24. King Nadir Shah of Afghanistan.

1934—Austrian Chancellor Dr. Dollfus; King Alexander I of Yugoslavia; M. Barthou, French Foreign Minister; Col. Pie-

racki, Polish Minister of Interior.
1935—Huey P. Long, U. S. Senator, September 10.
1936—K. Takahasi, Finance Minister, Admiral Saito, Admiral Suzuki, Japan.
1937—General Baqir Sidqi, Dictator of Iraq, August 12.
1938—E. Von Rath of German Embassy, Paris.
1939—Rumanian Premier M. Calinescau.
1940—Leon Trotsky, Russian communist leader.
1942—Heydrich, German Protector of Bohemia & Moravia; Admiral Darlan of France.
1944—Lord Moyne, Br. Resident Minister at Cairo.
1945—Mehar Pasha, Premier of Egypt, Feb. 24.
1946—Ananda Mahidal, King of Siam, July 21.
1947—Gen. Aung San, Vice-President of Burma and Five Cabinet Ministers.
1948—Mahatma Gandhi, Jan. 30.
1948—Nokroshy Pasha, Premier of Egypt.

"KINGS" WITHOUT KINGDOMS

Peter of Yugoslavia.
Michael of Rumania.
Umberto of Italy.
Simeon of Bulgaria.
Jog of Albania.
Leopold of the Belgians.
Henry Pu Yi former Emperor of China and Manchukuo.
Amanulla of Afghanistan.

INDEPENDENCE DAY

Belgium	July 21.
China	Oct. 10.
Ceylon	February 4.
Czechoslovakia	Oct. 26.
Finland	Dec. 6.
France	July 14.
Greece	March 25.
India	August 15
Italy	March 26.
Norway	May 17.
Pakistan	August 14.
Poland	May 3.
Portugal	Oct. 5.
Philippines	July 4.
Russia	Nov. 7-8.
Spain	April 14.
Turkey	Nov. 1.
U. S. A.	July 4.
Mexico	Sept. 16.

WORLD NAVIES, 1946

	U.S.A.	*G.B.*	*U.S.S.R.*	*France*
Battleships and battlecruisers	19	10	3	2
Cruisers	64	40	8	10
Aircraft carriers	98	27	..	2
Destroyers	341	186	30	28
Destroyer escorts	229	146	..	..
Submarines	178	99	100	16

WORLD'S ARMED STRENGTH

[as listed by *New York Times* on 14-5-48]

	Army	*Navy*	*Air Force*
United States	538,000	464,000	368,000
U.S.S.R.*	3,500,000	550,000	450,000
United Kingdom	527,000	274,000	145,000
France	465,000	77,000	58,000
China	4,500,000	20,000	22,000

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* Estimated strength.

FLAGS OF COUNTRIES

Afghanistan—Green, red and black with white device in the centre.

Belgium—Three vertical bands, black, yellow, red.

Burma—A red and blue banner with a large star for the union and five small stars for the main Burmese racial groups.

China—White sun in blue sky over red ground.

Denmark—Red with white cross.

Egypt—Green with 1 white crescent and three 5-pointed white star between the horns.

Finland—White with blue cross.

France—The 'Tricolour', three vertical bands, blue, white, red.

Greece—9 horizontal bands, alternately blue and white with white cross in blue ground in corner.

Italy—Three vertical bands, green, white red.

India—A tricolour flag of white, green, orange with *chakra* (wheel) in the centre.

Norway—Red with white bordered blue cross.

Pakistan—White, green with crescent and 5 stars.

Portugal—Green and red with arms in centre.

Rumania—Three vertical bands, blue, yellow, red.

Spain—A tricolour having three horizontal bars.

Switzerland—Red with white cross.

Siam—Five horizontal bands, red, red, white, dark blue, white, red.

Turkey—Red with white crescent and star.

U. S. S. R.—A plain red field whose upper corner next the staff has a golden five-pointed star in outline and below, in gold a sickle and a hammer, symbolizing agriculture and industry.

United Kingdom—The present Union Jack is compound of three heraldic crosses *i.e.,* the cross of St. Andrew forming blue and white basis; upon which lies the red and white cross of St. Patrick; and upon the whole rests the red and white cross of St. George dividing the flag vertically and horizontally.

United Nations—White U.N. emblem (global map projected from the North Pole and embraced in twin olive branches) centred on a rectangular blue-banner.

NAMES OF WORLD'S PARLIAMENTS

Japan	..	Diet.	Austria	..	Reichsrath.
U. S. A.	..	Congress.	Eire	..	Dail Eireann
England	..	Parliament.	Yugo-Slavia	..	Skuptchina.
Turkey	..	Grand National Assembly.	Norway	..	Storting.
Germany	..	Reichstag.	Switzerland	..	Federal Assembly.
Poland	..	Sejm.	Italy	..	Senate.
Persia	..	Majilis.	Spain	..	Cortes.
France	..	Chamber.			
Iceland	..	Althing.	Denmark	..	Rigsdag.
Netherlands	..	States-General.	Egypt	..	Barlaman
Bulgaria	..	Sobranje.			

"BLUE" BOOKS

German Government Publications are called *'White Books'*.

British Government Publications are called *'Blue Books'*.

Italian and Mexican Publications are called *'Green Books'*.

Spanish Publications are called *'Red Books'*.

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Japanese Publications are called *'Grey Books'*.

French and Chinese Publications are called *'Yellow Books'*.

Portuguese Publications are called *'White Books'*.

Netherlands blue books are *orange*.

FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

Afghanistan	Constitutional Monarchy.	Greece	Kingdom.
Albania	Republic.	Hungary	Republic.
Argentina	Federal Republic.	Japan	Constitutional Monarchy.
Austria	Democratic Republic.	Iran	Constitutional Monarchy.
Belgium	Constitutional, representative and hereditary monarchy.	Italy	Republican State.
Burma	Republic.	Iraq	Constitutional Monarchy.
Brazil	Federal Union.	Mexico	Federal Republic.
Bulgaria	Republic.	Nepal	Military Oligarchy of Nobles.
Czechoslovakia	Republic.	Norway	Constitutional Hereditary Monarchy.
China	Republic.	Netherlands	Constitutional Hereditary Monarchy.
Denmark	Constitutional Monarchy.	Spain	Corporative Republic.
Egypt	Constitutional Monarchy.	Poland	Republic.
France	Republican State.	Sweden	Constitutional Monarchy.
Great Britain	Limited Monarchy with Democratic Constitution.	U.S.A.	Federal Republic.
Sudan	Condominium.	U.S.S.R.	Socialist State of workers and peasants.
Switzerland	Confederation.	Yugoslavia	Federal Republic.
Siam	Limited Monarchy		
Tibet	Theocracy.		
Turkey	Republic.		

POPES OF THE LAST 150 YEARS

Clement XIV	1769-1775	Pius IX	1846-1878
Pius VI	1775-1800	Leo XIII	1878-1903
Pius VII	1800-1823	Pius X	1903-1914
Leo XII	1823-1829	Benedict XV	1914-1922
Pius VIII	1829-1831	Pius XI	1922-1939
Gregories XVI	1831-1845	Pius XII	1939

POLITICAL PARTIES

Wafd—The nationalist party of Egypt established in 1919 by Zaghlul Pasha, the great Egyptian nationalist. Two factions split off from the *Wafd* after the death of Zaghlul in 1927—the *Saadist Party* in 1938 and the *Kotla* (bloc) in 1945. All Egyptian parties were nationalist in the sense that they wanted to rid the country of the British influence.

Zionists—The supporters of movement to restore Jewish State in Palestine.

Kuomintang—The Chinese Nationalist Party formed originally by the followers of Sun-Yet-sen.

Falangists—The Spanish Fascist Party led by General Franco.

I. L. P.—Independent Labour Party in England—a small semi-radical group in British Labour with a Marxist programme—stands between Labour Party and Communism.

Communist Party—is the world organisation of Marxist Socialists operating through branch national parties very loosely affiliated to the Communist International or 'Comintern', but now abolished by the order of Stalin. The 'International' has again been revived under the name of 'Cominform' which is said to be the common information Bureau of Communist Parties of nine countries of Europe.

Fiana Fail—De Valera's radical Nationalist party in Ireland.

Conservative Party—The right-wing party of the British Parliament, successor of the Tory Party of the 18th and 19th centuries. National and Imperial feelings are themes of its party-politics.

Labour Party—It is the British Socialist Party composed of Trade Union, Socialist and Co-operative Societies which came into official existence in 1906. It aims bringing about, by legislation, changes which will benefit the poorer classes.

Liberal Party—Progressive Party of England, stands for free trade, was known as Whig Party in the 18th and 19th centuries, once a great political force, but now an insignificant party.

Anti-Fascist People's Freedom League, Burma (A.F.P.F.L.)—is the national organisation of the Burma people started by its president late General Aung San who organised Burmese insurrection against Japan in early 1945.

Myochit Party (Burma)—Another nationalist party of Burma led by late U. Saw, ex-premier of Burma.

M. R. P.—The mouvement Republican Populaire, is the popular central bloc of French politics consisting Catholic peasant, petit bourgeois and workmen of the Christian Trade Unions.

Popular Front Party—Political Party in different countries composed of communists, socialists and other democratic parties against Fascism.

Democratic Party—one of the two great parties in U.S.A. It is the liberal party of U.S.A.

Republican Party—A great political party of U.S.A. The party is largely isolationist and is more right-wing of the two parties.

POLITICAL TERMS

Amnesty—An act of Government granting exemption from criminal prosecution and punishment.

Appeasement—The act or process of pacifying, making calm and quiet. The term came into prominence at the time of Munich Agreement 1938, when Mr. Chamberlain's unsuccessful attempt to satisfy the ambitions of Hitler by agreeing to his annexation of territory and destruction of fortifications of Czechoslovakia had the merit of temporarily preserving peace of Europe and so of allowing those who wished to maintain it time to take the necessary steps.

Autocracy—A form of government in which political power is absolute and unlimited.

Ambassador—High ranking minister representing his government in a foreign country.

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Anschluss—German word meaning a "joining". Politically, it refers to the Union of Austria with Germany effected on March 12, 1938.

Authoritarian—A term denoting a more or less dictatorial system of Government.

Anti-Semitism—Opposition to the Jewish race. The movement became conspicuous in Europe during the last quarter of the 19th century. The movement appears to be based on economic rather than religious or political cause. It flared up strongly in Nazi Germany under Hitler.

Armistice—Agreement between combatants to cease fighting. It may be either temporary for the purpose of removing the wounded or burying the dead or it may be a preliminary to a general peace.

Anarchism—a political doctrine standing for the abolition of every organised authority and state machinery and the creation of Stateless Society instead. The anarchists hold that every form of government tantamounts to tyranny.

Blockade—a term used in international law for the prevention of goods entering or leaving an enemy country by land or sea. Neutral States are affected most by a blockade by sea, for if their ships try to approach the ports of blackaded country, they and their cargoes are liable to be confiscated by the blockading force.

Blitzkrieg—An attack by powerful forces at lightening speed and overwhelmingly strong.

Brain Trust—A group of highly specialised advisers to an executive.

Blackout—An old word originally used in theatres to describe the sudden extinction of light on the stage; it has been adopted as a handy expression for the masking of all lights that might guide raiding aircraft.

Balance of Power—This phrase means the preservation specially in Europe of an equality of strength between countries or groups of countries. The idea is that no one country shall become too powerful for the safety of the others.

Bourgeois—Name given usually in contempt to the middle class, specially those in commerce as opposed to proletariat—the propertyless class who lives without any property throughout and living only through the sale of their labour. This meaning was carried to extreme lengths by followers of communism.

Bicameral System—That form of government which consists of two separate chambers or houses, the concurrence of both ordinarily being essential to the enactment of legislation.

Bloc—means an association of legislative members or of political workers of different parties, formed to support a certain measure or ministry. A French word meaning 'mass' or 'group'.

Buffer State—a small state established or preserved between two greater states to prevent direct clashes between them.

Bolshevism—Accepts the doctrine that an irreconcilable antagonism exists between the propertied class or bourgeois and the property-less workers. It invites as inevitable and necessary class war, the object of which is the destruction of all classes, except the proletariat, in whose interest and by whom future society will be organised and governed on a communistic basis.

Bureaucracy—Government by an elaborate system of administrative departments and officials which generally tend to become unwieldy and labourious in its operation. It produces red tape or over-systematization

CSL

Its most frequently charged defects are rigidity, conservatism and spirit of routine.

Coalition—is a combination of political parties having different or opposed interests, effected with the object of carrying through or resisting a particular policy.

Concordat—An agreed pact; specially between Pope and a government; equivalent to international convention.

Contraband—goods or merchandise, the importation or exportation of which is forbidden; in war time applied specially as between neutrals and belligerents.

Consul—is a public officer authorised by the State to manage commercial affairs of its subjects in a foreign country.

Conscription—A system of compulsory enrolment for naval or military service.

Commando—A special type of soldier unit in World War II named by Churchill, composed of picked volunteers throughly trained in the science of invading and raiding enemy-held territory to collect information and to sabotage enemy-controlled industry.

Communism—Represents revolutionary socialism, hostile to the slow progress or gradual reform and progressive compromise. Communism believes in the dictatorship of the proletariat for a transitional period, after which a free society would come into existence in which every body would contribute to the common weal according to his capacity and receive a reward according to his need—Communism proclaims the equality of all peoples and races and believes in the final establishment of an international order.

Collective Security—means that all countries should together guarantee the security of each individual country.

Coup D'etat—a sudden change of government by force effected by holders of government or military power.

Constituent Assembly—is an assembly convened for the purpose of drawing up a constitution, but it only comes and this is the vital point —after there is a breakdown in the existing machinery of Government and a change has been brought about in the *status quo*.

Camouflage—It is the art and science of concealment applied to warfare. In the 1st world war, hiding all objects of military importance became necessary and many ingenious methods were adopted for concealing vehicles, buildings, guns and so on.

Condominium—A common rule of two or more nations in a territory such as Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

Conscientious objector—Person who refuses to enlist in the military service on moral or religious grounds.

Caucus—A meeting or conference of members of a political party or group to determine upon the candidate or policy to be supported in an ensuing election or other political contest.

Civil Disobedience—Refusal to co-operate with government without however using violence.

Comintern—is the abbreviation of Communist International and refers to wide-world communist organisation, the headquarters of which was Moscow. This has been recently dissolved by Stalin.

Customs Union—A union of states or nations for the purpose of establishing orderly trade with one another and a common tariff on imports, exports and goods in transit as now established in Low Countries of Europe.

Demarche—Term used in diplomacy to indicate a change in or deviation from an existing policy in foreign relations.

Dètente—Diplomatic term denotes a lessening in or relief from, a state of strained relations or diplomatic tension between two countries.

Democracy—"Government of the people, by the people, and for the people"—*Lincoln*. It is based upon freely elected representative institutions and upon an executive responsible to the people. It is based upon the fundamental assumption of the equality of all individuals and of their equal right to life, liberty (including the liberty of thought and expression) and the pursuit of happiness.

Diehards—extremely orthodox and unbending members of a party, it was specially applied to the members of the Conservative party.

Dictatorship—Control of Government or ruling power by a minority or by an individual. In ancient Rome the dictator was recognised as a ruler. In modern times, Dictatorship flared up in Europe after the World War I. Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany seized power unconstitutionally but with the support of the people.

Dominion Status—The expression refers to the constitutional status enjoyed by the self-governing Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Eire as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. These dominions "are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, united by a common allegiance to the Crown." With the creation of the Indian, Pakistan and Ceylon Dominions; the conception of Dominion Status has broadened and it seems probable that in the near future India may set the problem whether a Republic can be a dominion.

Diplomacy--Art of negotiation specially between countries. Each country possesses a diplomatic service to carry on negotiations with foreign countries. Some diplomats such as ambassadors, ministers, envoys, etc., go abroad and live in a foreign capital to keep in touch with the Government. Their business is to watch over interests of their country and to send regular reports upon all that concerns it.

Extra-Territoriality—is a term for immunities enjoyed by certain persons, properties, or places from the jurisdiction of the State in which they are situate.

Embargo—Government order preventing ships leaving port.

Extradition—Surrender of a fugitive from justice by one country or state of the authorities of another.

Ersats—German word for 'substitute' used to denote artificial substitutes for raw materials and foodstuffs lacking in Germany.

Espionage—A French word which expresses more than English word spying, it implies an organised system.

Falangists—Spanish fascists with a programme similar to that of Italian fascism.

Federalism—A system of government wherein political powers of the state are constitutionally distributed between National Government and the local Governments of members units which are called 'States', 'Provinces', etc. The division of powers between Federal government and separate states is laid down in the constitution and varies between one another.

CSL

Fifth Column—Term originated during Spanish War (1936-39) when General Franco's troops in four columns, attacked Republican Madrid from outside, while the General's supporters organised internal uprisings. These internal fighters were styled the 'fifth column'. Since applied to enemy sympathizers in any country, who attack in rear, whether with arms or by propaganda.

Filibuster—a politician who attempts to delay, or stop, the passing of a bill by obstructive speeches and amendments.

Four Freedoms—as enunciated by President Roosevelt are as follows (1) Freedom of Speech, (2) Freedom of Religion, (3) Freedom from Want and (4) Freedom from fear.

Guerilla—Irregular warfare. Guerilla warfare consists in attacks upon a regular army by bands or irregular troops, usuallly the inhabitants of an invaded country.

Gentleman's Agreement—Diplomatic agreement between statesmen, economists etc., not embodied in formal document.

Hegemony—Leadership; especially of one state of a group.

Imperialism—Policy of national expansion especially annexation of territory or control of a subject population.

International—Socialist movement in which socialists from many countries are united. There have been three such movements or Internationals, and each has held several Congresses. *First International*—accepted a programme drawn up by Karl Marx and has lasted from 1866 to 1874. *Second International* in which there was trade union element, was organised in 1889. It sought to compass the aims of Socialism by constitutional, not revolutionary action and it held several congresses between 1882 and 1930. *The Third International* was organised in Moscow and was revolutionary in its aims. It declared in favour of establishing communism by force.

Lebensram—German word for 'living space', a new word for German imperialism. It was used to stress that population is too dense and to claim such territories as agricultural regions towards Black Sea and Colonies overseas.

Lock out—refusal by employers to re-employ the workers on strike.

Left—Political description applied to Liberals and Socialists. The more radical their views the more 'left' are they regarded. The term orginates from the fact that Liberal or Whig, Party sat on left of the House of Commons.

Marxism—the Socialist doctrine following the theories of Karl Marx (Germany). His ideas are that all wealth is produced by Labour and should go to labour, and that as this leaves nothing for the capitalist, who can therefore never accept the system, the worker must prepare for a class war in which capitalism will be destroyed. An essense of his theories is that history is largely determined by economic forces

Mandate—a system of colonial administration adopted after the World War I for the former German colonies and certain Turkish territories. The right to the territories were transferred to the League of Nations which entrusted their administration to certain allied powers.

Maquis—A French guerilla organisation formed to resist the Germans and sabotage their conquest in the World War II.

Moratorium—A period during which no business engagements are completed or debts or liabilities enforced. A moratorium is declared by the government in times of a financial crisis.

Most Favoured Nation Clause—Invariably included in trade treaties, under which each signatory country undertakes to extend to all other signatories tariff reductions, or favours, granted to any country.

Military Attache—In time of war neutral powers often send officers to be attached to the field staff of each belligerent for the purpose of making independent reports to their government.

Naturalisation—The word is used for the admission of a person of foreign nationality into that of a country he desires to adopt. An oath of allegiance has to be taken.

Non-agression Pact—Treaty between two or more states, pledging each not to attack the other and to help the State that may be victim of aggression.

Non-intervention—Policy whereby states undertake not to assist in any way the combatants in a war.

Non-belligerency—This word is used for sympathetic attitude, short of fighting, which a country adopts towards one side in war time. It therefore differs from the strict impartiality called for in neutrality.

Nationalisation—Taking management by the state of trades and industries, etc., with or without compensation; changes from private to state ownership.

Nordic—a race of tall, blonde blue-eyed and long-headed people living generally in Scandinavia. Political theory puts Nordics as superior to any other race in the world and all European civilisation is due to them. Nazis upheld the theory of Nordism to trace the theory that all Germans are Nordics, hence pure and superior.

Neutrality—In international law, condition of a state abstaining from participating in a war between other states and maintaining an impartial attitude in its dealings with the belligerent states, with the recognition of this impartiality by the warring states.

Open Door Policy—System of keeping trade open to all countries, disregarding monopolies or preferences.

Parole—An oath taken by a prisoner of war that, if released, he will not try to escape, nor during a war bear arms against his captors.

Popular Front—a suggestion of political collaboration of communists, socialists, and other democratic parties against Fascism, put forward by Communist International in 1935.

Purge—Expulsion, possibly killing of unreliable, unruly, disobedient or merely inconvenient members of a party.

Putsch—German word meaning "attempt to take by force", specially power, control of state.

Prize Court—This is a court of law set up in time of war to decide whether a ship and its cargo captured by the navy is a lawful prize or not. If it is decided that a captured ship is enemy property or a cargo is contraband, they are sold and the proceeds are distributed to all members of the navy at the end of the war.

Privy Purse—In England allowance from civil list for personal use of the Sovereign.

Prohibition—Government action which prohibits by law the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors except for medical or sacramental use.

Proportional Representation—is the method used in an election by which the votes are so counted that each party has representation in the elective body in proportion to its strength.

Plebiscite—An expression of the will of the whole people, sought in ratification or disapporval of a particular measure, already decided but regarding which their elected representatives hesitate to act. It comes from the Latin *plebs*, the common people.

Protocol—The rough-draft of a diplomatic document on which diplomatic transactions tentatively commenced.

Pourparler—An informal preliminary conference of representatives of different groups, functions or countries looking to a formal agreement settling disputed questions between the parties.

Picketing—Walking up and down in front of a place of business in an effort to keep other persons from patronising or working in it.

Pacifism—opposition to war or military force in any form. Pacifists believe that all international disputes should be settled by arbitration. The various movements toward world peace are not necessarily wholly pacifistic, as they often advocate defensive war and oppose only aggressive war.

Plenary powers—Absolute and complete. Term commonly used in diplomacy.

Progrom—A Russian word which means 'devastation': it is used to denote anti-Jewish outrages.

Public utilities—Electric light, gas, telephone, street car and other services of use to all members of the community.

Proletariat—The wage-earning class of a community collectively. Socialists distinguished this class from the capitalists and middle classes often termed *bourgeois*.

Quislings—Local traitors, named after the Norweigian traitor, Major Quisling, who betrayed his country to the Germans; specially those who quietly prepare the way for Germany in her neighbouring countries.

Radical—persons of political views quite different from those held by the majority of persons who, in politics, are in favour of sweeping reforms or other change in government or laws.

'Red's—slang term for revolutionaries, specially communists, derived from Red Flag, the traditional symbol of revolt.

Republic—State in which the sovereign power resides in the electorate, which is the body of the people having a voice in electing representatives to rule them. There is no hereditary sovereign to rule.

Right and Left—In the Legislative bodies, it is the fixed habit of the conservative groups and parties to seat themselves on the right hand side of the Speaker or President and of the liberal or radical element to seat themselves on the left. The term 'centre' is used for middle parties or groups.

Regent—One who rules on behalf of a sovereign, when a sovereign is a minor, or is insane, or in any other way incapable of ruling, it is usual to appoint a regent to act for him.

Racketeer—One who levies blackmail on industry by threats of interference.

Reparations—Payments or other amends made for damages caused by the aggressor in a war.

Referendum—Bringing a proposed law before the people as a whole for decision.

Reciprocity—Exchange of commercial privilege. It is usually experienced when two nations make tariff concessions to each other.

Sphere of Influence—A region normally undeveloped politically under the determinative power of a foreign nation.

Soviet—Council; a local governing body in the U.S.S.R. composed of peasants, soldiers and workers which send deputies to the higher congressor.

Stalemate—a deadlock.

Straw vote—Unofficial polling of public opinion.

Suzerainty—Control specially political of one nation over another.

Syndicalism—A political doctrine based on establishing communal control of production and a government by trade union through revolutionary general strike.

Scorched Earth—a wartime policy of destroying all resources when defending forces had to withdraw before the invader.

Sitdown Strike—An organised protest of labour in which workers remain in their place and employment without working, to prevent the continuation of production until a settlement is reached.

Sabotage—At first this word was confined in its meaning to malicious waste or destruction of an employer's property by workmen, as a means of enforcing demands in labour disputes. Now it is being applied more broadly, to define any malicious crippling or destruction of property, especially as practiced by foreign secret agents or sympathisers for the purpose of damaging military equipment.

Self-determination—The principle that every distinct people or nation ought to have the right to determine the question of its independence, its form of government and its political destiny.

Trotskyist—Supporter of Trotsky and in particular of his theory of world revolution, as opposed to Stalin policy confining communist efforts to Russia.

Totalitarian—a believer in the complete centralization of government control under one political group and suppression of other parities.

Total War—denotes the present form of war in which the distinction between combatants and non-combatants are fast disappearing.

Theocracy—A state governed by God or its priests.

Tory—A member of the Conservative Party of England.

Task force—A temporary naval attack unit organised for a specific assignment.

Unitaleral action—Action taken by one party to an agreement without consulting the other parties in international affairs.

Ultimatum—Final statement of demands, rejection of which is assumed to lead at once to breaking-off friendly relations and to war.

Underground—organised, secret oppostion to the government or force in power.

Ultimatum—a last offer, final terms offered in a negotiation.

Ukase—official order or decree.

V. E. Day—Victory in Europe. May 8th 1945, the day of the official end of the European phase of the war II.

V. J. Day—Victory in Japan, August 14, 1945; the day making the end of the war in Japan.

War Monger—people who desire war and support war-like policy.

Visa—Official approval stamp or written over passport or document.

Veto—Executive refusal to approve an Act particularly a legislative enactment.

Whip—A member of a political party assigned to the task of rounding up members of that party to ensure their votes and to hold them in line with party policy.

Writ—A document directed to some public officer or private person commanding him to do a certain act therein specified.

PLANS, TREATIES, ALLIANCES, CONFERENCE, ETC.

Atlantic charter—A joint declaration was made by Roosevelt-Churchill on August 14, 1941 stating (1) no aggrandisement territorial or other. (2) No territorial changes without expressed wish of the people concerned. (3) Right of all people to choose the form of their own government. (4) Restoration of sovereign rights and self-government to those who have been forcibly deprived of them. (5) Access on equal terms to trade and to raw materials of the world. (6) Fullest collaboration between all nations in economic field. (7) Final peace of the whole world after destruction of Nazi tyranny.

Arab League—Arab States formed a union by a pact signed in Cairo (March 22, 1945). The League consists of Egypt, Iraq, Transjordon, Saudi-Arabia, Syria, Lebanon and Yemen. Provision was made for admission of Palestine conditional upon her achievement of independence.

Benelux—This is the combination of three countries—Belgium, Luxemburgh and the Netherlands which have established a complete Customs Union among themselves. No longer are there any tariff barriers between these three countries. All three are now together called Benelux. The Benelux has been an influential example of closer economic cooperation for recovery of Europe.

Brussels Pact—This pact was signed in March 1948 by Britain, France and the Benelux countries. It is military defence pact and also equally an economic cooperation pact. It pledges all five countries to cease from bilateral injury to one another and to enlarge their commercial exchanges.

Cominform—At a secret meeting on Sept. 21-28, 1947, representatives of the communist parties of nine European nations re-established Communist International (Cominform) which has been officially dissolved in Moscow on May 22, 1943. The formation of the fourth International, officially called Information Bureau with headquarters in Belgrade, Yugoslavia was announced in Moscow on October 5, 1947. Communist parties of following nations were represented—U.S.S.R., Yugoslavia, Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria Rumania, Czechoslovakia, France and Italy.

Casablanca Conference—A conference held at Casablanca, French, Morocco, Jan. 14-24, 1943 where President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill planned the invasion of Sicily and attack of Italy.

Dumbarton Oaks Conference—a meeting of the representatives of U.S.A., Great Britain, Russia and China held at estate known as Dumbarton Oaks in Washington, recommending on Oct. 9, 1944 the creation of the United Nations, an international security organisation.

International Bank—on July 1-22, 1944 an international Monetary Conference was held at Bretton Woods, U.S.A. with representatives of 44 nations to discuss (1) creation of a World Bank for reconstruction and development (2) establishment of international monetary fund.

Imperial Conference—A gathering in which ministers representing the United Kingdom, Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, the Irish Free State, Newfoundland discuss matters relating to the Empire as a whole. Imperial Conferences which have been held in 1911, 1917, 1918, 1921, 1923, 1926 and 1930 carry on the purpose of earlier "Colonial" Conferences. In July and August, 1932, an Imperial Economic Conference was held at Ottawa to stimulate trade between the various parts of the Empire. The Conference is now known as 'Commonwealth Premiers' Conference' which held a sitting in 1948.

International Red Cross—The International Red Cross Committee is an eminent body composed of Swiss citizens whose chief characteristic is absolute neutrality. Its permanent headquarters are in Geneva. It is entrusted with overseeing the observance of the treaty of Geneva.

The international policies of the Red Cross are determined by the International Red Cross Conference. This, the highest deliberating authority of the organisation normally meets every four years. It is composed of delegations from all the national secretaries, delegates from the States which had signed Geneva Convention, delegates of the International Red Cross Committee and delegates of the League of Red Cross Society.

Under the terms of Geneva Prisoners of War Convention of 1929, the International Red Cross Committee maintains a Central Agency of Prisoners of War at Geneva, and each nation comes to set up a central bureau for prisoners of war information to co-operate with it. Names of prisoners and civil internees are assembled by these bureaus, cabled to the Central Agency at Geneva, listed and filed these for permanent reference, and transmitted at once to the central information bureau of the country interested. Delegates of the International Red Cross Committee carry on their humanitarian work among prisoners and internees and visit the camps to see that they comply with the provisions of the Geneva Convention.

Land-Lease—An act of U. S. Congress passed March 1941, authorising the loan or exchange of goods between U. S. A. and the anti-Axis nations, with credits and debits on a non-cash basis, payment of debit balances to be made 'in kind' or in goods of equivalent value.

League of Nations—An organisation of many nations formed in January, 1920 for the promotion of international peace and cooperation; dissolved in April, 1946.

Little Assembly—The Interim Committee of the General Assembly of the United Nations which functions while Assembly Proper is not in session. It was set up by the Second Session of the General Assembly at Lake Success 1947. The Soviet group countries boycotted it on the grounds that it amounted to a perpetuation of the General Assembly contrary to the charter and that it was an attempt to bypass the veto on the security council.

Munich Agreement—Signed by Germany, Great Britain, France and Italy on September 29, 1938 at Munich. It provided for the cession to Germany of the Sudetan-German districts of Czechoslovakia; the new frontiers were guaranteed by all the signatories. The agreement was violated in March, 1939 by Hitler seizing what was left of the country.

Monroe Doctrine—An important declaration of policy by President Monroe of U. S. A. on Dec. 2, 1823 in which he declared "that American continents by free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained are henceforth not to be considered as subjects of future colonisation by any European Powers."

National Recovery Administration—popularly known as N.R.A. the bureaus, committees, supervisers, etc., brought into being to carry out the provisions of National Industrial Recovery Act passed by American

Congress on June 13, 1933. Declaring a national emergency to exist, caused by economic depression and unemployment, the act empowered the President of U. S. A. to establish codes of fair competition, with regulations as to wages and hours of labour and wide powers of limitation of production, price control, etc. An extensive programme of public work was also provided for.

Panama Declaration—established a neutrality zone round the American Continent.

Pan-American Union—An international body created by the 21 American republics for the fostering of mutual understanding and cooperation, with the essential duty of making effective the resolutions adopted by the successive Pan-American Conferences. A general Conference of the member Republic is held quinquennially known as *Pan-American Conference*. The Union is financed by its 21 members on the basis of population.

United Nations—Permanent organisation set up in 1945 to establish and preserve world peace, security and democracy.

Versailles, Treaty of—the peace treaty ending the war of 1914-18; concluded between the Allies and Associated Powers and Germany on June 29, 1919. It imposed terms on Germany in regard to the occupation of Rhineland territory for a period of years, the surrender of Alsace-Lorraine to France and parts of East Prussia to Poland, the handing over to the Allies of Germany's colonial possessions. An important feature of those treaty was the establishment of League of Nations.

Western Union—Organisation of Economic European Cooperation was formed by the sixteen European countries receiving Marshall aid. They declared that the maximum possible effect of increased production will be obtained only if individual country is willing to take into account the economic needs of the group as a whole when planing for production. The sixteen European countries are working out plans for industry, agriculture, fuel and power, trade and production for next four years. It is pledged by its constitution to draw all 16 countries together in joint programmes for the exchange of commodities and services. It is pledged to inspire them towards joint actions for "relaxing restrictions on trade."

Westminster, Statute of—passed by the House of Commons, Nov. 23, 1931 gave formal ratification to the declarations of the Imperial Conferences of 1926 and 1930 which were participated in by the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland the Prime Ministers of the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, the Irish Free State and the Dominion of Newfoundland. The Conference of 1926 defined Dominions as "autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or or foreign affairs, though united by a common allegiance to British Commonwealth of Nations. . . . Every self-governing member of the Empire is master of its destiny. In fact, if not always in form, it is subject to no more compulsion whatever."

Zionism—Jewish movement to establish Palestine as a State, a national home for the Jewish people. Dr. T. Herzl of Vienna was the founder of the modern movement. In 1917 the Balfour Declaration pledged Britain to support the Jewish claims to Palestine; pledge was confirmed by the League of Nations which gave control of Palestine to Britain. This led to Arab opposition.

A DICTIONARY OF BUDGET TERMS

Consols. Before 1914, but not now, Consols (Consolidated Annuities) were the most important part of the Funded Debt (which see). Introduced in 1751 they now earn a fixed rate of interest of 2½ per cent or so.

Cost-of-living Subsidies. Payment from the Exchequer—that is, a public subsidy to keep the cost of essential foods down.

Customs. Tax paid on goods brought into the country—machineries, tobacco, wines, and so on.

Deflation. Reduction in money in circulation resulting in lower prices, shortage of credit and an improved currency position (see Inflation).

Direct Taxes. Money which citizens are obliged to pay to the State according to income and size of family.

Dollar area. Area of the United States and other countries where payment for goods has to be made in dollars.

Devaluation. An economic term indicating reduction in the value of a currency in terms of gold, silver and consequently in relation to a foreign currency also. This is done either by reducing the amount of gold which that currency represents by means of law or by altogether separating the gold value from it and leaving it alone. Its advantage is that it makes goods cheap in foreign currency, also gives fillip to business by raising prices and reduces the actual value of public and private debts.

Exchequer. Government Office having the care of public revenue. The word comes from Latin Scaccarium, a chess-board, later a chequered counting table.

Excise Tax. Indirect tax (which see) imposed on goods produced in this country—beer, spirits, tobaccos, matches etc.

Fiduciary Issue. That part of banknote circulation which is not backed by gold. This procedure is repeated over and over again throughout the year, hence the term Floating Debt.

Floating Debt. Short-term Government obligation such as Treasury Bills issued to cover its temporary need for ready cash. This procedure is repeated over and over again throughout the year, hence the term Floating Debt.

Funded Debt. The major part of the National Debt is funded, that is, issued as documents which are repayable only if and when the Government desires it. These documents or securities yield interest, that is, periodic payments from the Government for the use of the public's money.

Hard Currency. A relative term applied to currency of a country in short supply issued by countries which can offer goods in great demand. For example, the dollar and the Swiss franc are hard currency. In Denmark the pound sterlings is hard currency.

Income Tax. See Direct Taxes.

Indirect Taxes. Taxes imposed on consumption of certain goods such as cigarettes, tobacco, beer. Their payment depends on an individual's habits and not his wealth as in Direct Taxes.

Inflation. A condition in which the amount of money in the pockets of citizens is much greater than the amount of goods in shops. Rising prices and lowering values of money are signs of inflation.

Inland Revenue. This has two meanings. One, the name of the organisation collecting all sorts of taxes; the other, the total of all direct and indirect taxes (except Customs and Excise).

National Debt. Financial obligation of a Government secured by the general credit of a nation and not by any special assets such as, say, land, ships, or railways. The two principal types of the National Debt are Funded and Floating debts.

National Income. The revenue of a State regarded as an economic unit. It is usually defined as the annual amount of money earned by the inhabitants of a country by the production of goods and the rendering of services.

Soft Currency. Opposite to hard currency (which see).

Stamp Duty. Is indirect Tax imposed on written documents of legal value such as contracts or cheques. Payment is denoted by affixing stamps.

Sterling area. Name given to the British Empire countries (except Canada), and some other countries such as Egypt and Iceland, who pooled their holdings of dollars to buy jointly in the dollar area.

Surtax. Is the Direct Tax levied on the very high incomes.

Tariff. A tax on imports or exports, the income from which goes to national revenue.

INDIAN INFORMATION

INDIAN PROVINCES

	Area (sq. miles)	*Population*		*Area (sq. miles)*	*Population*
Madras ..	126,166	49,341,810	Ajmer-Merwara ..	2,400	583,693
Bombay ..	76,443	20,849,840	Andamans & Nicobars	3,143	33,768
West Bengal	28,033	21,194,613	Coorg ..	1,593	168,726
U.P. ..	106,247	55,020,617	Delhi ..	574	917,939
East Punjab	30,541	12,409,924	Panth Piploda	25	5,267
Bihar ..	69,745	36,340,151	Himachal Pradesh	11,000	..
C.P. & Berar	98,575	16,813,584			
Assam ..	54,951	10,204,733			
Orissa ..	32,198	8,728.544			

INDIAN BRIDGES

	Feet		*Feet*
Sone Bridge (1900) ..	10,052	Hardinge Bridge (girder)	5,380
Godavari Bridge ..	9,096	Mahanadi Bridge ..	6,912
Willingdon Bridge ..	2,610	Jubilee Bridge ..	1,213
Gorai Bridge ..	1,744	Meghna Bridge ..	1,213
Howrah Bridge* (1943) ..	2,150		

Oldest Iron Bridge in India

Old Iron Bridge over the river Gumti, Lucknow.

Longest Span Girder Bridge

Kotri Bridge over Indus with 5 spans, each span 360 ft. 6 in.

POPULATION OF INDIAN CITIES

Calcutta ..	2,108.981	Ahmedabad	591.267	Lucknow ..	387.177
Bombay ..	1,489,883	Delhi ..	521.849	Howrah ..	379.292
Madras ..	777,481	Kanpur ..	487,324	Nagpur ..	301,957
Hyderabad	739,159	Amritsar ..	391,010	Agra ..	284,149

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* Largest Cantilever Span bridge in India and the third largest cantilever bridge in the world.

Banaras ..	263,100	Bareilly ..	192,688	Trichinopoly	159,556
Allahabad	260,630	Lashkar ..	182,492	Baroda ..	153,301
Poona ..	258,197	Jubbulpore	178,339	Mysore ..	150,540
Bangalore	248,334	Jaipur ..	175,810	Jamshedpur	148.711
Madura ..	239,144	Patna ..	175,706	Ajmer ..	147,258
Sholapur ..	212,620	Surat ..	171,443	Multan ..	142,768
Srinagar ..	207,787	Meerut ..	169,290	Moradabad	142,414
Indore ..	203,695				

SOME INDIAN FLAGS

Indian Union Flag: Tricolour of green, white and saffron with Chakra in the centre.

Pakistan Flag: Green with one fourth of total area in white to represent minorities with a crescent and five-pronged star to represent the five provinces of Pakistan.

Congress Flag: Tricolour of green, white and orange with Charkha.

Muslim League Flag: Bright green and is embossed with a white crescent and star, the emblem of Islam.

Flag of Hindu Mahasabha: Deep orange and is embossed in crimson, with a sword, a cobra entwined with lotus flowers and the Hindu Swastika.

Flag of Indian Communist Party: Red flag embossed with hammer and sickle.

DISTANCES BY RAIL

	Bombay.	*Calcutta.*	*Madras.*
Agra ..	835	790	1239
Ahmedabad ..	306	1328	1100
Allahabad ..	848	512	1484
Ambala ..	984	1025	1481
Bangalore ..	745	1245	222
Banaras ..	928	429	1461
Bombay ..	—	1223	794
Calcutta ..	1223	—	1032
Cawnpore ..	840	630	1602
Darjeeling ..	1611	388	1420
Delhi ..	845	902	1361
Gwalior ..	763	1000	1166
Hyderabad (Deccan) ..	491	987	373
Jubbulpore ..	616	733	1263
Lucknow ..	885	354	1386
Madras ..	794	1032	—
Nagpur ..	520	703	682
Poona ..	119	1342	675
Simla ..	1301	1342	1798

ATTEMPTS ON HIMALAYAS

	ft.
Trisul reached by Longstaff	23,406
Jonsong peak reached by Prof. Dyhrenfurth (1930)	24,344
Ramthang Peak reached by Prof. Dyhrenfurth (1930)	23,200
Mount Kamet reached by F. S. Smythe (1931) ..	25,447
Mt. Everest—highest point reached by Rutteledge Expedition	27,400
Nanda Devi reached by Tilman Expedition (1934)	25,660

CHANGED NAMES OF INDIAN CITIES

Old Names	*New Names*
Calicut ..	Kozhikode
Cawnpur ..	Kanpur
Muttra ..	Mathura
Benares ..	Banaras
Bezwada ..	Bijayawada
Trichinopoly ..	Triuchi
Ganges ..	Ganga

INDIAN FELLOWS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY

A. Carsetji.
S. Ramanujam.
Sir J. C. Bose.
Dr. Megnad Saha.
Sir C. V. Raman.
Dr. Birbal Sahani.
Dr. K. S. Krishnan.
Sir S. Bhatnagar.
Dr. H. J. Bhabha.
Prof. S. Chandrasekhar (America).
Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis.

INDIANS IN THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT

Sir Muncherjee Bhowanagree (Conservative).
Dadabhai Naoroji (Liberal).
Sapurji Saklatvala (Communist).
Lord Sinha of Raipur (House of Lords).
Lord Sinha, Second Baron of Raipur (House of Lords).

INDIAN PRIVY COUNCILLORS

Rt. Hon. Ameer Ali.
Sir B. C. Mitter.
1921—V. S. Srinivasa Sastri.
1926—Lord Sinha.
1930—D. F. Mulla.
1934—Sir Shadilal.
1934—Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru.
1934—H. H. the Aga Khan.
1936—Sir Akbar Hydari.
1939—Dr. M. R. Jayakar.
1941—Sir C. Madhavan Nair.

INDIAN PEER OF THE BRITISH REALM

Sinha, Aroon Kumar (b. 1887).
Heir—Hon'ble Sudhindra Sinha (b. 1921).

INDIAN WINNERS OF VICTORIA CROSS

(1) World War I—1914—1918

Ishar Singh (*Naik,* 28th Punjabis) Waziristan, 1921.
Mir Dost (*Subadar,* Coke's Rifles) Great War, 1915.
Shahamad Khan (*Naik,* 89 Punjabis) Great War, 1916.
Chatta Singh (*Sepoy,* 9th Bhopal Inft.) Great War, 1916.
Darwan Sing Negi (*Naik,* 39th Garhwal Rif.) Great War, 1918.
Karnabahadur Rana (*Naik,* 23rd Gor. Rif.) Great War, 1918.
Khudabad Khan (*Naik,* 129th Balu) Great War, 1914.
Kulbir Thapa (*Rifleman,* 23rd Gor. Rif.) Great War, 1915.
Lala (*Lance-Naik,* 41st Dogras) Great War, 1916.
Govind Singh (*Lance-Dafadar,* 28th Lancers) Great War, 1918.
Badlu Singh (*Ressaldar,* 14th Cavalry) 1918.
Gabar Singh Negi (*Rifleman,* 39th Garhwal Rif.) Great War, 1915.

(2) World War II 1939—1945

2nd Lt. Premindra Singh Bhagat (*Indian Engineers*) Middle East, 1941.
Subedar Richpal Ram, 6th Rajputana Rifles (*Posthumous Award*) Middle East, 1941.
Havildar Prakash Singh, 8th Punjab Regiment, Arakan, 1943.
Havildar-Major Chhelu Ram, 6th Rajputana Rifles (*Posthumous*) Tunisia, 1943.
Lt-Col. A. E. Cumming (12th Frontier Force Rifles, Indian Army), Malaya, 1942.
Havildar Gajee Ghale, 5th Royal Gorkha Rifles, Chin Hills, Burma, 1943.
Jem. Abdul Hafiz, 9th Jat. Regt. (*Posthumous Award*) Imphal, July, 1944.
Subedar Lalbahadur Thapa, 2nd Gorkha Rifles, Tunisia, 1943.

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Rfn. Bhanbhogta Gurung, 2nd Gorkha Rifles, Burma, 1945.
Rfn. Lacchiman Gurung, 8th Gorkha Rifles.
Lt. Karamjit Singh, 4|15th Punjab Regiment (*Posthumous*), Burma.
Sepoy Namdeo Jadav, 1st Marhatta Light Infantry, Italy.
Sepoy Ali Haidar, 6th Frontier Force Rifles, Italy, 1945.
Major F. G. Blaker, 9th Gorkha Rifles.
Sepoy Kamal Ram, 8th Punjab Regt., Italy, 1944.
Naik Nand Singh, 11th Sikh Regt., Arakan Front, 1944.
Rfn. Ganju Lama, 7th Gorkha Rifles, Imphal, 1944.
Naik Agan Singh Rai, 5th Royal Gorkha Rifles, Bishenpur, Silchar, 1944.
Subedar Netra Bahadur Thapa, 5th Royal Gorkha Rifles (*Posthumous*), Bishenpur, 1944.
Naik Yeshwant Ghadge, 5th Mahratta L. I. (*Posthumous*), Italy.
Rfn. Tul Bahadur Pun., 6th Gorkha Rifles, Burma Front, 1944.
Rfn. Sher Bahadur Thapa, 9th Gurkha Rifles (*Posthumous*), Italy, 1944.
Jem. Ram Sarup Singh, 1st Punjab Regt., Burma (*Posthumous*).
Sepoy Bhandari Ram, 10th Baluch Regt., Burma.
Capt. M. Allmand, 6th Gorkha Rifles, (*Posthumous*).
Rfn. Thaman Gurung, 5th Royal Gorkha Rifles, Italy (*Posthumous*).
Jem. Parkash Singh, 13th Frontier Force Rifles, Burma (*Posthumous*).
L. Naik Sher Shah, 7|16th Punjab Regiment, Burma (*Posthumous*).
Naik Gian Singh, 15th Punjabi Regiment, Burma.
Naik Fazal Din, 10th Baluch Regiment, Burma (*Posthumous*).
Hav. Umrao Singh, Royal Indian Artillery, Burma.

PRESIDENTS, LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, INDIA

Sir Frederick Whyte (1920-25).
V. J. Patel (1925-30).
Sir Curimbhoy Ibrahim (1930).
Sir Sanmukham Chetty (1930-33).
Sir Abdur Rahim (1933-45).
G. V. Mavlankar (1946-1947).

SPEAKERS, CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY OF INDIA

G. V. Mavlanker 1947—

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS PRESIDENTS

(First Sessions, 1885)

Presidents

1885—Bombay—W. C. Bonnerji.
1886—Calcutta—Dadabhai Naoroji.
1887—Madras—Badruddin Tyabji.
1888—Allahabad—George Yule.
1889—Bombay—Sir W. Wedderburn.
1890—Calcutta—Sir P. Mehta.
1891—Nagpur—P. Ananda Charlu.
1892—Allahabad—W. C. Bonnerji.
1893—Lahore—Dadabhai Naoroji.
1894—Madras—Alfred Webb.
895—Poona—S. N. Banerji.
96—Calcutta—R. M. Sayani.

Presidents

1897—Amraoti—C. Sankaran Nair.
1898—Madras—A. M. Bose.
1899—Lucknow—R. C. Dutt.
1900—Lahore—N. G. Chandravarkar
1901—Calcutta—D. E. Wacha.
1902—Ahmedabad—S. N. Banerji.
1903—Madras—Lalmohan Ghose.
1904—Bombay—Sir Henry Cotton.
1905—Benares—G. K. Gokhale.
1906—Calcutta—Dadabhai Naoroji.
1907—Surat—Rash Behari Ghose.
1908—Madras—Rash Behari Ghose.

1909—Lahore—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
1910—Allahabad—Sir W. Wedderburn.
1911—Calcutta—Bishen N. Dar.
1912—Patna—R. N. Mudholkar.
1913—Karachi—Nawab Saiyed Mahammad.
1914—Madras—B. N. Bose.
1915—Bombay—Sir S. P. Sinha.
1916—Lucknow—A. C. Majumdar.
1917—Calcutta—Dr. Annie Besant.
1918—Bombay (Spl.)—Hasan Imam.
1918—Delhi—Pt. M. M. Malaviya.
1919—Amritsar—Pt. Motilal Nehru.
1920—Calcutta (Spl.)—Lala Lajpat Rai.
1920—Nagpur—C. Vijiaraghavachariar.
1921—Ahmedabad—Hakim Ajmal Khan.
1922—Gaya—C. R. Das.
1923—Delhi (Spl.)—Abul Kalam Azad.
1923—Cocanada—Mahomed Ali.
1924—Belgaum—M. K. Gandhi.
1925—Cawnpore—Sarojini Naidu.
1926—Gauhati—Srinivasa Iyengar.
1927—Madras—Dr. M. A. Ansari.
1928—Calcutta—Pt. Motilal Nehru.
1929—Lahore—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
1931—Karachi—Sardar V. Patel.
1932—Delhi—Seth Ranchhodlal.
1933—Calcutta—Mrs. Nellie Sen Gupta.
1934—Bombay—Rajendra Prasad.
1935—Lucknow—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
1937—Faizpur—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
1938—Haripura—Subhas Bose.
1939—Tripuri—Subhas Bose.
1940—Ramgarh—A. K. Azad.
1946—Pt. J. L. Nehru.
1946—Meerut—J. B. Kripalani (resigned).
1947—Dr. Rajendra Prasad.
1948—Jaipur—Dr. P. Sitaramiyya.

INDIAN POLITICAL PARTIES

Indian National Congress—With the dawn of Independence, the Congress has now become a pure political party. The object of the Indian National Congress is now "the well being and advancement of the people of India and the establishment in India by peaceful and legitimate means of a Cooperative Commonwealth based on equality of opportunity and of political, economic and social rights and aiming at world peace and fellowship".

All-India Muslim League—Started in 1906 for securing special safeguards and privileges for Muslim; was successful in securing separate communal representation in 1909; put forward in 1940 the demand for Pakistan which has eventually been accepted; its success was due to its spreading two-nations theory which has to a great extent been responsible for its being able to bring within its fold as followers the majority of the Muslims in India. Had no definite political or economic objective, except the establishment of Pakistan. After the establishment of Pakistan, Muslim League has been split into two: Pakistan Muslim League and All-India Muslim League. The Indian counterpart has by resolution given up communal politics.

Communist Party of India—Founded in 1924 was declared illegal till 1943 but in 1943 the ban was removed when the party declared its full support for the World War II. Once a left-wing party within the Congress, now disaffiliated due to the party's support for the war and its attitude towards the August Revolution. The party moulds its policy with reference to the policy of Russia in international affairs, rather than according to the conditions obtaining in India. They look to Russia fo guidance and inspiration. The main principle of the party is the gainin of power for one class of society *i.e.* the workers. It openly expresses its enemity to other classes and does not hesitate to use means to establish the dictatorship of the proletariat.

Socialist Party of India—formerly known as Congress Socialist Party, was started in 1934 within the Congress; but in 1947, it completely broke away from the Congress and dropped the word *Congress* from the nomenclature of the party. The object of the party as affirmed in the Cawnpur Conference of 1947 States—In the Socialist Society of our conception, the individual, *i.e.*, the worker is free and the State has no power to deprive him of his rights and privileges except through the processes of law. The Trade Unions are free and may even exercise, if need be, their right to strike . . . . . other voluntary organisations of working men are also free . . . . Political parties other than party in power may be formed and may function freely. . . . The State has no monoply over the press, the radio or other means of propaganda. . . . . In such a society, economic power, *i.e.* the power to plan production, the power to determine the condition of work, prices, the distribution of the national produce—all these powers are held not exclusively by the State bureaucracy but shared by Trade Unions, cooperative and other suitable representative bodies of working men . . . . ."

All-India Forward Bloc—came into existence in 1938 when Mr. Subhas Bose sought to rally leftists against the Congress orthodoxy. It favours a programme of direct action and repudiates all compromise.

Radical Democratic Party—led by Mr. M. N. Roy. It persues unrelenting opposition to the Congress. It stands for a Secular State on a Socialist basis. The party emphasizes on socialism rather than on Nationalism. It has sought to build itself on the industrial front.

National Liberal Federation—was formed in 1908 when he moderates broke away from the Congress and formed a separate party. It advocated gradual progress through peaceful and constitutional means a opposed to the revolutionary creed and policy of the congress. Their policy is very 'moderate' that it has never found support of the Indian masses. It represents a doctrine which has no place in a dynamic India. The Liberals are opposed to direct action of any sort. They are wedded to constitutional forms of agitation whatever they may mean.

Scheduled Caste Federation—Party established by Dr. Ambedkar. Party's main propaganda was vilifying the Congress and the caste Hindus. It has no political or economic platform. Its centred all its agitation for demanding extraordinary privileges. After partition it has changed it outlook.

Hindu Mahashaba—aims at the creation of a militant organisation of the Hindus for cultural, political and social uplift of the Hindus. It supports the spirit of Hindu revivalism with a demand of a Hindu State and Akhand Hindustan.

Rastriya Swayam Sevak Sangh—It was started in 1930. Its objects are the military training of the Hindus, development of social consciousness and building up of character, and promotion of physical, intellectual and moral well-being of the Hindus and the establishment of Hindu Rashtra.

Ahrar Party—Confined to well-to-do peasantry and the lower middle class mainly in Punjab. Membership was confined to Moslems alone and combined economic grievances and religious passion to formulate their militant political policy. After the partition the party is now is almost extant.

Kishan Party—Is a peasant movement with socialistic outlook. Its programme is the amelioration of the Indian peasants. Though separate from the Congress, its programme is identical with Congress.

All India Muslim Majlis—Progressive Nationalist Party of Muslims, was opposed to Pakistan and supporters of Congress ideals.

Jamiat-ul-ulema-Hind—An organisation of Moslem divines and religious teachers. It has always supported the political programme of the Congress. It is a supporter of independence on religious grounds.

Shia Political Conference-represents Shia Moslems and is the most important minority among the supporters of the Congress.

Momin Ansar Conference—Its main policy has centred on opposition to Muslim League and to Pakistan; The Conference is the full supporter of Congress politics.

Other Parties are—*Socialist Democratic Party, Bolshevik Party of India, Democratic Vanguard Part, Socialist Republican Party of Sarat Bose etc.*

FIRST IN INDIA

Largest River—Indus.
Largest Lake—Wular Lake, Kashmir.
Highest Peak in British India—Nanda Devi (25,660 ft.).
Largest populated City—Calcutta.
Highest Waterfall—Gersoppa Waterfall Mysore, (960 ft. high).
Most Famous Pass—Khyber Pass.
Largest Province—Madras Province.
Largest Indian State—Jammu & Kashmir.
Wettest Place—Cherrapunji.
Densest Population—Bengal 779 per sq. mile).
Largest Populated District—Vizagapatam.
Largest Forest Province—Assam.
Largest Delta—Sundarbans Delta (8,000 sq. miles).
Highest Summit reached by man—Nanda Devi (Himalayas, 25,660 feet).
Largest Cantilever Span Bridge—Howrah Bridge.
Largest Cave Temple—Ellora, Hyderabad.
Longest Corridor—Rameswaram Temple Corridor (4,000 ft. long).
Largest Mosque—Jumma Masjid, Delhi.
Longest Bridge—Sone Bridge.
Highest Gateway—Buland Darwaja (Fatehpur Sikri, 176 ft. high).
Tallest Statue—Statue of Gomateswar (Mysore) 56 ft. high.
Longest Platform—Sonepur Platform (O. T. R.).
Longest Road—Grand Trunk Road (1,500 miles).
Highest Tower—Kutab Minar, Delhi.
Largest Dome—Gol Gambuz, Bijapur.
Largest Fair of Animals—Sonepur fair.
Longest Canal—in Nepal and Oudh and Rohilkhand.
Largest Zoo—Zoological Gardens, Alipur, Calcutta.

HILL STATIONS

Nainital—Hill sanatorium in Kumaun Hills, is the summer headquarters of U. P. Government picturesquely situated on the shores of a beautiful lake. A favourite summer resort. Altitude 6,400 ft. It is reached from Kathgodam on the R. & K. Railway 22 miles distant.

Mussoorie—Is a hill sanatorium, on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, 14 miles from Dehra Dun. From Dehra Dun to Mussoorie by motor cars. Altitude 6,600 ft. above sea level. Nearest railways station is Dehra Dun.

Lansdowne—Is situated in Garhwal about half way between Mussoorie and Nainital. It commands a wonderful view of snows, the Badrinath block being nearest. It is reached by E. I. R. to Kotdwara *via* Najibabad junction and there is good service of motor cars, a distance of 26 miles; altitude 6,060 feet.

Almora—In Kumaun Hills. Altitude 5,500 ft. above sea level. Mean annual rainfall 45·55 inches; fine views of shows. Almora to Pindari glacier is 6 marches. Nearest railway station is Kathgodam.

Mount Abu—Above 115 miles from Ahmedabad and 17 miles from Abu Road on the B. B. C. I. Ry. The range is about 50 miles in circumference. The climate is very healthy and delightfully cool. The average temperature is 60°. There is a motor service from Abu Road to Mount Abu. Altitude 3,800 ft. above sea level.

Bangalore—The cantonment is the largest in South India. Altitude 3,000 ft. above sea level.

Coonoor—on the Nilgiri Hills in the Madras Presidency: Altitude 6,740 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Coonoor. It is reached from Ootacamund by rail.

Gulmarg—is at a distance of 28 miles from Srinagar, is an ideal summer resort is also a centre of winter sports.

Dalhousie—Altitude 7,867 ft. above sea level and 51 miles from Pathankot railway station (N. W. R.) reached by motor road.

Darjeeling—Summer headquarters of the Government of West Bengal. Altitude 7,168 ft. above sea level, magnificent snow views of Mount Everest (29,002 ft.) and Kanchanjungha (28,104 ft.). The minimum temperature in winter is about 30°. It is the centre of a large tea district.

Kalimpong—Hill station near Darjeeling. Nearest railway station is, Gellikhola, 4,000 ft. high.

Mahabaleswar—Principal hill station of the Bombay Presidency and summer retreat of the Bombay Government. Altitude 4,500 ft. above sea level. Nearest railway station is Poona, 75 miles.

Matheran—Nearest hill station of Bombay. It is only 2,650 ft. high.

Kasauli—A cantonment and convalescent depot in the Simla District situated on the crest of a hill overlooking Kalka Valley, 22 miles from Kalka by motor road. Famous for Pasteur Institute, altitude 6,200 ft.

Kulu Valley—on the north of Simla and east of Kangra within East Punjab. The valley is about 4,700 ft. high. The main route is *via* Pathankot. The valley is called the valley of the Gods due to every village having its own God.

Panchmarhi—in Hosangabad, C. P. is 32 miles from Pipariya Station on G. I. P. Ry.; summer resort of the Government of C.P. The maximum height is 4,500 ft.

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Kadaikanal—A hill station in Southern India on the upper range of the Pulney Hills in the Madura District. It is 7,000 ft. above the sea level. The nearest railway station is Kadaikanal Road on S. I. R.

Ootacamund—Summer headquarters of the Government of Madras. Altitude 7,490 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 57·50°F.

Ranchi—Altitude 2,100 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 74·9°F. Nearest railway station is Ranchi.

Shillong—Headquarters of the Assam Government. Altitude 4,987 ft. above sea level. Average temperature in midsummer rarely reaches 80°F. Cherrapunji, 30 miles south of Shillong holds the world record for rainfall, average 426 inches per annum (in 1861 the rainfall at Cherrapunji was 905 inches). Nearest railway station is Pandu (68 miles).

Simla—Summer headquarters of the Government of India. Altitude 7,057 ft. above sea level. It is reached by mountain railway connecting Kalka and Simla. Mean temperature is .55°F, and annual rain is 70″.

Srinagar (Kashmir)—Capital of Kashmir State. Altitude, 5,250 ft. above sea level. Mean annual day temperature is 55°F. The best period to visit Kashmir is April to November. Nearest railway station is Rawalpindi, 196 miles. It is situated on the river Jhelum and is easily approached by motor roads *via* Rawalpindi, Jammu and Havelian Railway Station.

Elevations of Leading Indian Health or Pleasure Resorts

	Feet		*Feet*
Nainital (U.P.)	6,400	Amarnath (Kashmir) ..	13,000
Mussorie (U.P.)	6,600	Kasauli (Simla)	6,200
Mount Abu (Rajputana) ..	3,800	Metheran (Bom.)	2,650
Almora (U.P.)	5,500	Panchmarhi (C.P.)	4,500
Bangalore (Mysore) ..	3,000	Kadaikanal (Madras) ..	7,000
Coonoor (Madras) ..	6,740	Ootacamund (Madras) ..	7,490
Dalhousie (E. Punjab) ..	7,867	Shillong (Assam)	4,987
Lansdowne (U.P.)	6,060	Simla (E. Punjab)	7,057
Darjeeling (W. Bengal) ..	7,168	Srinagar (Kashmir) ..	5,250
Kalimpong (W. Bengal) ..	4,000	Ranchi (Bihar)	2,100
Mahabaleswar (Bom.) ..	4,500		

PLACES OF INTEREST IN INDIA

Abu, Mount—Is a hill station between Bombay and Delhi, at a height of above 3,800 ft.—Nearby is Dilwara, famous for wonderful Jain Temples noted for their interior marble work. Nearest railway station is Abu Road on B. B. C. I. R. from Ahmedabad to Delhi.

Agra—Famous for Taj Mahal and Agra fort which contain all the glories of Mughal Empire, such as Dewani Khas, Moti Masjid, Jasmine Tower, Dewani-i-am, also tomb of Akbar at Sekandra and Itmud-ud-Dowla.

Ajanta—A village in Nizam's Dominions is reached by motor from Jalgaon Station on G. I. P. Rly.—It is 38 miles from the station, celebrated for cave hermitages and hills in a wooded and rugged ravine. There

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are 32 caves and they date back to 231 B.C. and they are famous for paintings on the walls.

Amarnath—Situated at a height of nearly 13,000 ft. in Kashmere where thousands of Hindus make pilgrimage in August. There is a motor service from Srinagar upto Pahalgam (7,200 ft.), 60 miles from Kashmere where motor road ends. The cave is about 50 ft. high and 50 ft. deep, situated between two huge mountains known as Kailash and Bhaira. At the back of the cave are several ice stalagmites in the shape of *linggmas*—the frozen image of gods Siva, Parvatti, Kartik and Ganesh, all self-made images of ice.

Aurangabad—Famous district and town in the Nizam's State where world-renowned temples and monastic caves of Ellora and Ajanta are located. There is also the historical fort of Daulatabad, the town Raoaza which contains the tomb of the great Moghul Emperor Aurangazeb and the magnificent tomb of Aurangazeb's wife, Bibi-ka-Naghara, a replica of the Taj Mahal of Agra. From the city of Aurangabad all these places can be visited. It is a station on Nizam's State Railway and 71 miles from Manmad on G. I. P. Ry.

Amritsar—Famous for Sikh golden temple. It is also famous for gold and silver thread, carpets, silks and *pashmina* materials. It derived its name from the sacred tank on which the golden temple is situated. The town stands on the main route of the N. W. Railway.

Ajmer—A city of antiquity and celebrity. Ana Sagar Lake is famous for its picturesque surroundings. The place is famous for Darga of Saint Khwaja M. Chisti in whose memory a great fair is held every year. At seven miles distance, there is Pushkar, the most sacred lake of India. Ajmer lies on the B.B.C.I.R. between Delhi and Ahmedabad.

Bhubaneshwar—The new capital of Orissa Province; contains the famous *Lingaraj Temple, Mukteswar Temple* and *Parasurameswar Temple.*

Banaras—Sacred City of the Hindus, contains numerous temples. The view of the ghats is magnificent, close by is the famous Hindu University. Six miles from the city is the Sarnath which contains the finest Buddhist ruins in India.

Chittorgarh—Famous for the Tower of Victory—contains wonderful Rajput ruins. It is the old capital of Sisodhiya Rajputs, the proud descendants of the sun-god who now rule at Udaipur. The Tower of Victory was built by Rana Kumbha in commemoration of his many victories of Mughal invaders.

Delhi—Capital of India since 1911, was the capital of seven Empires. Some of the famous relics are—Fort and Palace of Shah Jehan with Pearl Mosque, Jumma Masjid, Kutub Minar, Ferozabad, Indraprastha, Tuglukabad etc. It occupies a strategic position, standing at the head of the plains of the Ganges and the Indus, the headquarters of all important railway lines of India.

Ellora—These famous caves can be conveniently reached from Auragabad on Nizam's State Railway—and it is 71 miles from Manmad on G. I. P. Ry. Ellora cave temples, thirty-four in number, are perhaps the largest and most varied in India. There are three classes of caves, Hindu, Buddhist and Jain. Pictured here are some of the heroic sculptures—

Siva with Parvati, Siva in dancing posture, Siva in his many manifestations dominate courts, niches and freizes. The most interesting is the Kailasa Temple which is carved entirely out of rock standing in a court 276 ft. long and 154 ft. broad and the back wall of the court is over 100 ft. high.

Fathepur Sikri—Short distance of 24 miles from Agra, founded by Akbar in A.D. 1569 in a lonely eminence. After Akbar's death, the city was deserted within fifty years of its foundation, the reason being lack of water. Interesting places are, imposing pile of great mosque measuring 542 ft. east and 438 ft. north and south, the tomb of Saint Sheik Salim Chisti, houses of Akbar's wives, Miriam and Jodhbhai. *Panch Mahals*—the building of five storeys, Hiran Minar, Buland Darwaza, the famous sand-stone chamber of *Diwani Khas* etc. This is the city of sandstone, the specimen of finest mughal architecture.

*Harappa**—An extensive prehistoric site,dating back from about 3,500 B.C. is situated on the dry bed of the Ravi in the Montgomery District of the Western Punjab. It is 15 miles from Montgomery on Lahore-Karachi line of the N. W. Ry. The ruins which are spread in a circumference of about three miles comprise high mounds; but much of the ancient city lies buried beneath the surrounding alluvium. The most important monuments so far excavated are (1) Great granary, (2) Two series of workmen's quarters, (3) Eighteen circular platforms of mysterious purpose, (4) A large house, a well-built street gutted in pits, and a large number of drains, baths and several ancient well. There is also a prehistoric cemetery. Here is also a museum containing antiquities excavated from the site.

Hampi (or Vijayanagar)—The ruins of this ancient city covering an extent of about 10 sq. miles on the south bank of Tungabhandra river near Hospet railway station on the Guntakul-Hubli section of the M. S. M. Railway is a witness to the rise and fall of this forgotten Hindu Empire which is said to be the finest and grandest in South India. Hampi was the birthplace and the capital of the glorious Hindu Empire of the Vijayanagar Kings whose temples, monasteries and palaces were praised by many a foreign traveller.

Jaipur—The most typical Hindu City built of pink stone, was founded in 1728 by Jai Singh II. Most famous is the deserted city of Ambar, 5 miles away where Rajput architecture can be seen at its best. There is also the famous observatory of Man Singh built about 1718. Jaipur is famous for brass works, stone carving, ivory and Sandalwood work, etc.

Jubbulpur—616 miles from Bombay with an elevation of 1,362 ft. The Marble Rocks are situated 11 miles from Jubbulpur.

Kanyakumari—The temple of Kanyakumari (the Virgin Goddess) is situated at Cape Comorin. This is the apex of the India peninsula, where Bay of Bengal, Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean meet. This is one of the most picturesque spots of India.

Madura—Famous for the Minakshi (Fish-eyed Goddess) temple decorated with big Gopuram or Pagoda. The great Temple is 847 ft. by 729 ft. and surrounded by 9 Gopurams, the highest of which is 152 ft. The most elaborate stone carving is found in the Hall of 1,000 pillars.

Pushkar—is famous for its lake and fair which is held in October-November. The lake is regarded as most sacred in India and the temple of Brahma close to the lake is supposed to mark the spot where the incarnation of the God took place.

Sanchi—In Bhopal State noted for Buddhist Stopes (*Stupas*) *i.e.*, memorial mounds standing on the level top of small sandstone hill about 300 ft. high. The most imposing stupa is a solid dome of stone about 103 ft. high. Round the base is a pathway surrounded by stone railing and entered at the four points of the compass by gateways some 18 ft. high. Both gateways and railings are elaborately carved with bas reliefs and inscriptions.

*Mohenjo-Daro**—The best preserved Indian city of the prehistoric times dating back from about 3300-2700 B.C. is situated eight and-a-half miles from Dakri Station on the Kotri-Dadu-Larkana branch of the North Western Railway on the right bank of the river Indus. The ruins covers a very large area (about 240 acres) of a series of towns built in successive ages one on the top of another. Mohenjo-Daro, the "Mound of the Dead", was once a strikingly well-planned city with broad streets, commodious and well-built houses, a good water supply and an astonishingly modern form of drainage. Great bath, is one of the most striking buildings of the ancients and its annexes with smooth brik pavements made watertight with an economical use of gypsum bitumen. Only about a fifth of the entire area of the city has been so far exposed. The broad streets, which could accommodate several lines of traffic, the impressive high walls lining the narrow lanes, the tall chimney-like steaming of the walls as now exposed, produce an abiding impression of India's oldest city. Antiquities discovered include hundreds of pottery vessels of every shape and size from large-sized storage jars to beautiful miniature vases, a few millimetres in diameter, with various designs, model and toy animals in clay, beads and ornaments with which womenfolk loved to a bedeck their bodies, artistic seals and sealings with incriptions in a forgotten pictographic script which has baffled all attempts to decipher it and with beautiful designs of animals such as bulls, rhinos, elephants, tigers, buffaloes, etc. Copper and stone statuettes, stone weights, shell and ivory objects, copper utensils and objects of every day household use are amongst the innumerable objects discovered at Mohenjo-Daro.

Kashmir—Altitude varies from 5,000 to 6,000 ft. Srinagar is the summer capital. It is 5,200 ft. with an area 11 sq. miles; mean temperature in January and February is 25·F. Srinagar is easily reached by two motor roads, *i.e.*, *via* Rawalpindi and *via* Jammu. It generally takes one day to reach Srinagar by motor car *via* Rawalpindi. Following are the heights of some prominent places of Kashmir—Srinagar 5,200 ft.; Gulmarg 8,700 ft.; Phalgam 7,000 ft.; Amarnath 13,000 ft. Places worth seeing in Kashmir are—Phalgam 60 miles from Srinagar; Dal Lake; Amarnath—97 miles from Srinagar.

Lucknow—Important city of United Provinces, ranks fourth in size among Indian cities. The grandeur of the city date from Asaf-ud-daula, the fourth Nawab. The principal places of interest are Residency the Machchi Bhawan, the Imambara, and the Hussainabad, the Dilkush, Kaiser Bag.

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*In Pakistan.

Poona—City is famous as having been the capital of the Peshwas' dominions. It is the seat of Bombay Government during monsoon.

Konark—On a desolate waste of sand dunes, roughly 24 miles from Puri, stands the Black Pagoda, devoted to Surya, the sun-god, the stupendous relics of the thirteenth century. Carved from enormous blocks of granite, it is the wonder of artistic creation.

Hardwar—It is situated at the place where the Ganges issues forth from the hills on its fertilizing career. *Hari-ki-Pari* is a place of worship, which is a footmark of Vishnu imprinted on a stone set into the upper wall of the ghat.

Sarnath—A few miles outside Benares. This is the place where Gautama Buddha preached his First Sermon on Nirvana and where at latter day Buddhist centre is growing up.

*Taxila**—Is situated 200 miles from Lahore in Pakistan. Less than half a mile from the station is the archæological remains spread over an area of about 25 square miles. They contain three separate cities. These cities contain remains built by Bactrian Greeks, Scythians, Parthians and Kushans. Besides these three cities there are many outlying monuments, mainly Buddhist stupas and monasteries.

ARCHITECTURAL & HISTORICAL LANDMARKS—Hindu

Kailasha Temple—In the Ellora Caves in Aurangabad in the Hyderabad State—a colossal monolith which must have taken nearly a century (6—8 century A.D.) to excavate from the cliff face. The Kailash Temple measured 276 by 154 ft. and 108 ft. in height.

Ajanta Frescoes—Famous frescoes in the Buddhist caves of Ajanta in Hyderabad State. These caves are situated in the horse-shoe valley. Frescoes are now ranked among the masterpieces of the world's art. There are 29 caves altogether (temples and cells) connected by paths or steps.

Ambar Palace—The deserted capital of Jaipur, where the Palace is considered to include the finest specimens of Rajput architecture.

Black Pagoda—In Konark, 24 miles from Puri. This is 1000 years old; famous on account of its remarkable carvings, one of the glories of the Indian architecture. This is the Temple of Sun God.

Sanchi Tope—Famous Buddhist stupa in the Bhopal State. Stupa is a hemispherical monument of bricks or stones. Sanchi Stupa is one of the oldest (third—first century B.C.) and best preserved Stupas of India. Stupa stands on the top of a small hill and enclosed by the finest and oldest stone railing in India. The stupa is 120 ft. in diameter and 56 ft. high. The four curved gates of the Sanchi Stupa facing the points of the compass, one of the greatest historical and artistic importance of these west gate is very carefully restored.

Tower of Victory, Chitore—A famous Hindu monument raised by Rana Kumbha in 1450 to commmemorate his victory over the combined armies of Malwa and Guzrat. It consists of nine stories and is 122 ft. high.

Golden Temple—At Amritsar, the famous Sikh Temple. The temple stands on a raised plinth 65 ft. square in the centre of the tank and is surrounded by verandas.

Pushkar Lake—The famous sacred lake and fair of the Hindus at Pushkar, near Ajmer.

Hampi (Vijayanagar)—The ruins of this ancient city covering an extent of about 10 sq. miles on the south bank of Tungabhadra river near Hospet Railway Station is a witness to the rise and fall of this forgotten Hindu Empire which is said to be the finest and grandest in South India.

Gomateswara—near the town of Sravana Belgola in the State of Mysore, is the giant figure of Gomateswara, the Jain sage. The figure is 57 ft. statute and is carved out of a single stone at the top of a hill. The image is probably 2,000 years old.

Sirguya Frescoes—are the earliest dateable Indian paintings. These are a group of Buddhist frescoes (100 B.C.) on the walls of a cave in Sirguya in the Central Provinces.

Temple of Bhubaneswar—Near Puri, most famous of these are *Rajrani* and *Lingaraj* Temples. Rajrani Temple, erected in the 11th century is a gigantic tower covered with statues and surmounted by receding layers of stone, the whole inward-curving tower ending in a great circular crown and a spire. Lingaraj Temple is the most perfect example of north Indian architecture.

Barhut—Central India. The sculptures on the stone railing surrounding the Barhut stupa (second century B.C.) represent, with most careful exactitude episodes in the life of the Buddha and the former lives.

Buddhist caves at Karli.—One of the most famous of rock-cut temples. It is the largest and most harmonious. It dates from the first century B.C. It is 124 ft long and 45 ft. wide internally.

Buddha-Gaya—The temple (200 ft. high) is built on the site of a shrine erected by the Emperor Asoka. It commemorates the moment when Gautama meditating under the tree of Bodhi attained enlightenment and quality of Buddha after seven years of metal conflict and penance.

Kajuraho Temples—At Kajuraho in Bundelkhand are grouped about thirty temples dedicated to Siva, Vishnu or Jina. They date from about 950 to 1050.

Elephanta Caves—Saiva temples in Elephanta Island in Bombay Harbour contains an important Saiva rock-out shrine. The famous Trimurti figure of Siva is situated in a niche.

Elephanta Caves.—Saiva temples in Elephanta Island in Bombay Harbour figure of Siva is situated in a niche.

Gwalior Fort—The ancient city of Gwalior is dominated by its Fort, the most famous in India which crowns a precipitous ridge.

Dilwara Temples—Near Mount Abu, the principal hill station of Rajputana are the wonderful Dilwara Temples. Five in number, they date from the 11th, 12th and 13th century and are built entirely of marble. The carvings which decorate the interior walls and pillars of the temples are fantastically lavish, yet the general impression is one of perfect harmony.

Saranath—At Benares, there is the great Buddhist Stupa, a stupendous stone structure 104 ft. in height and 93 ft. in diameter. It commemorates the fact that here Gautama Buddha preached his doctrine to his first five disciples.

Mahabalipuram—or Seven Pagodas is situated on the coast south of Madras. Its temples are bas-reliefs and are cut from living rocks. The most famous is the 'Descent of the Ganges'. This giant image dating from the seventh century is cut in a granite rock 90 ft. long and 43 ft. high. Another famous sculpture is "Vishnu reclining on the snake Ananta." "Arjuna's Penance" another bas-relief is the largest bas-relief in the world.

Minakshi Temple, Madura—The huge Temple at Madura (13th century), the most famous of South Indian Temples and one of the finest edifices of Dravidian architecture. This is dedicated to Siva and his espouse Minakshi (the Goddess with fish eyes). The Temple is nearly rectangular—725 ft. by 840 ft. and has four big Gopurams and six smaller ones, a beautiful tank known as the *Tank of Golden Lilies*, surrounded by arcades and a hall of 1,000 columns whose sculpture are of surpassing beauty.

Temple of Sri Rangam—At Trichinopoly. The great Vishnava Temple at Sri Rangam with a hall of thousand columns.

Ramaswaram Temple—The magnificent temple in Ramaswaram is probably the most perfect specimen in existence of the mason's art in the Dravidian style. Its chief features are the pillared halls nearly 4,000 feet long, and the effect of their sculptures is almost over-powering.

Muslim

Fatepur Sikri—Few miles from Agra: the city of palaces built of red sand-stone by Akbar in 1569-1584. Most important piece of art is Buland Darwaja, 126 ft. high built in commemoration of the conquest of Khandesh.

Fort at Agra—Containing ruins of Pearl Mosque, Hall of Public and Private Audience, the Throne Palace, King's Baths, Hall of Mirrors, Jasmine Palace, Jasmine Tower.

Gol Gumbaz—At Bijapur, is the largest dome in the world with an area of 18,225 square feet.

Kutab Minar (280 ft. high) at Delhi—Is one of the masterpieces of Indian technology and art. It is the largest minaret in the world. It was built by Altamash in 1232 A.D

Mausoleum of Sher Shah—At Sasaram, is a gigantic solid and masculine example of Moslem architecture.

Taj Mahal—Most famous tomb built by Shah Jahan in memory of his beloved wife—rises with its slender minarets in the midst of magnificent gardens. It is the result of collaboration between Indian, Turkish and European artists. The height of the dome is about 230 ft. It is the most perfect example of Mughal architecture.

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INDIA AT A GLANCE

Size

The Dominion of India covers an area of 11,29,000 square miles including States and Kashmir excepting Hyderabad and extends from north to south for a distance of 2,000 miles and from east to west nearly 2,000 miles, the total area being equal to the whole of Europe without Russia or nearly times the size of the British Isles. It covers only 3 per cent of the land surface of the world and is almost half the size of U.S.A. India has a coast line of 2,500 miles. By the division of India, two-thirds of the entire area has came under Indian Union.

Situation

India lies entirely to the north of the equator and is situated between the latitudes 8° and 37°N and longitudes 62° and 97 E. The Tropic of Cancer passes right through India cutting the country roughly into two halves.

Physical Division

India can be divided into several regions, but broadly speaking, there are *three distinct physical regions.*

1. The Himalayan region.
2. The Indo-Gangetic plain.
3. The Deccan or Plateau of the south.

The *Himalayan Region* stretches from western limits of Kashmir in the west to Burma in the east, a distance of 2,000 miles with an average width of nearly 200 miles, forming a natural barrier to the north. The Himalayas with Pamirs, Hindukush, Sulaiman etc. form a mountain wall shutting off Indian sub-continent from the rest of Asia. The Himalayan region acts as a natural protective wall and provides rain water for the plains by arresting the moisture-bearing clouds of south-west monsoon. During winter it obstructs cold winds of Central Asia from coming to Indian sub-continent.

The Indo-Gangetic plain consists of alluvial deposits and lies between the Himalayan region of the north and the Deccan of the south. The plain covers an area of 300,000 sq. miles and economically the most developed region. As the name indicates, the plain has two great river systems, the Indus and its tributaries and the Ganges and its tributaries. A third great river, the Brahmaputra, cuts through the Himalayas near their eastern end and joins the Ganges to form a great delta. The land drained by these rivers is alluvial and forms the most fertile region in India.

The Deccan—From the river-plains on the north and from the coast-plains on the east and west of Peninsular India, there rises a great three-sided plateau called the Deccan. It begins at Vindhya mountains in the north and other two sides are known as Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats. This region is quite unlike the low-lying Indo-Gangetic plain. It is not smooth and flat but a table-land raised from 1,000 feet to 3,000 feet above sea level and broken up into many river valleys which run seawards among ranges of hills. A look on the map shows that while the Dominion of India can be divided into the three natural regions mentioned above, only the first two divisions are pertinent in the case of the Dominion of

Pakistan and that because the Eastern Pakistan falls into the Indo-Gangetic Plain.

Climate and Rainfall

There is no such thing as an Indian climate. Some of the hottest, the coldest, the driest and the wettest areas of the world are to be found in India. The variations of climate depend chiefly on three factors—latitude, distances from the sea and monsoon.

As the greater part of the country lies within the Tropics, the climate is tropical; high temperatures being the rule in the low-lands, lower temperatures in the high-lands. The rainfall is determined to a great extent by the monsoon. So dependent is India on this annual rainfall that variations from year to year mean prosperity or disaster for millions. There are two such currents, the *South-West monsoon* and *North-East monsoon.* The *South-West monsoon,* as it is called, strikes India about the middle of June. S.W. monsoon gives 90 per cent. of the total rainfall of India and affects the growth of nearly all her food crops. This monsoon reaches the country in two currents—Arabian sea current and the Bay of Bengal current. The former gives rain to Bombay, the Punjab, and a part of the Central Provinces and the latter to the rest of India and to Burma.

The other current known as *North-East monsoon* is really South-West monsoon in retreat and flows from the land towards the sea. This current is the cause of wintry rains in Madras and the Punjab.

The 'bursting' of the monsoon is due to the ultimate breakdown of the low pressure barrier, known as the doldrums, over the Equator, and they surge northwards of the South-East trade winds from the southern to the northern hemisphere.

We can divide the country into four zones according to rainfall: (1) *Wet zone,* where minimum rainfall is 100 inches. This include west-coast of the Peninsula, outer ranges of Himalayas including Bengal and Assam. (2) *Intermediate zone* (zone of moderate rainfall): it includes portions of Central India, Himalayas to Godavari river, east-coast of the peninsula and eastern side of the Western Ghats and up to Baroda, where rainfall is between 40 inches and 80 inches. (3) *Dry zone,* where rainfall is less than 40 inches. (4) *Desert zone,* where rainfall is less than 20 inches.

Soil of India

Indian soil may be mainly classified under four different heads namely, (1) *the alluvial soils,* (2) *black soils,* (3) *red soils* and (4) *the laterite soils.*

The alluvial soil is most fertile and covers greater part of the northern India between the foot of the Himalayas and the northern slopes of the Vindhyas and extends in a narrow fringe round the coastline of the Peninsula. Territorially they occupy greater parts Northern Rajputana, the Punjab, Delhi, United Provinces, Bihar, Bengal, half of Assam and the East and West Godavari, Kistna and Tanjore districts of Madras.

Red soils cover the whole of Madras, Mysore and south-east Bombay and extend through the east of Hyderabad and the Central Provinces to Orissa and Chota Nagpur. Northwards the red soil extends into greater part of Sonthal Parganas and the Birbhum district of Bengal, the Mirzapur, Jhansi and Hamirpur districts of the United Provinces, the Baghelkhand States of Central India, the Aravallis and the eastern half of Rajputana.

Black soil or black cotton soil is very suitable for cotton cultivation and extends over greater part of Bombay Province, and also Kathiawar, Berar, the western parts of Central Provinces, Central India and Hyderabad, large area of four Deccan districts of Madras and the Ramnad and Tinnivelly districts.

Laterite soils are porous clayey rock found on the summits of the basaltic hills and plateaus of Central India, along the Eastern and Western Ghats of Peninsular India and in Assam. The distinguishing peculiarity of these soils is their acidity.

Himalayan Frontier

The Himalayan range is an effective barrier against invasion or interference from the north. On the north-east, this can be said with some degree of qualification, for in the past China has knocked at the gate of Nepal and overran Tibet. The present North-west frontier of India is no longer the old traditional frontier which admitted all foreign invaders of India. After partition of India, the boundary of the new north-west frontier of India is about 200 miles long starting from the southern boundary of Kashmir up to the north-eastern limit of the Bahawalpur state. So long as Kashmir remains within India, the dominion frontier meets the frontier of U.S.S.R. through Gilgit.

Coast Line

Coast line of India lacks in indentations and although about 2,500 miles in length, it has only three openings of importance into land, such as Runn of Cutch and Gulf of Cambay on the west, the Gulf of Mannar between India and Ceylon. The coasts are singularly free from islands and the sea round the coast of India is very shallow and the shores are usually flat and sandy.

River Systems

(1) *Rivers of Northern India*—They all rise in the mountain wall or beyond it. The rivers are fed with waters from the gradual melting of snow. They do not depend entirely for their waters on the monsoon rains.

The three great river systems of Northern India are:—(a) *Indus* river with its five tributaries, *i.e., Jhelum, the Chenub, Ravi, the Beas* and *the Sutlej;* (b) *Ganges* river with a course of fifteen hundred miles, drains Himalaya's southern slopes and with its tributaries, *the Jamuna, the Gogra, the Gondak, the Chambal* and *the Sone*, and enters Bay of Bengal through extensive deltas with multitude of channels; (c) *Brahmaputra* flows down through Tibet, Assam and Eastern Bengal and discharges its floods after a course of sixteen hundred and eighty miles into Bay of Bengal.

(2) *Rivers of Peninsular India*—They are quite different from the rivers of the Northern India. They rise in the hills of the plateau and they are fed only by monsoon rains. The rivers rise near Western Ghats, and flow towards Bay of Bengal. The most important are the *Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna* and *Kavery*. In the north of the plateau two important rivers, *Narbada* and *Tapti* flow westwards.

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Frontiers

At long last the geographical compactness within almost invincible frontiers has broken down in India. Only the Himalayas in the north and the Indian Ocean in the south stand as of old. The N. Western and the N. Eastern frontiers have now to be defended by two different dominions. As for the N. W. frontier now within Pakistan which has through ages admitted the foreign invaders, *viz.*, Aryans, Greeks, Persians, Scythians, Huns and Mongols, it is vulnerable at two points. The first is through Baluchistan, *i.e.*, through the Bolan Pass. The second is through the four passes of the N.W.F.P. *i.e.*, Gomal, Khyber, Kurram and Tochi. It is, however, uncertain whether the N. E. frontier which runs along Burma and whose defence has now fallen on the Dominion of India has ever been used for large scale invasion except during the Second World War. A portion of it, the S.E. part to be exact has fallen on the lot of the Dominion of Pakistan to defend.

In consequence of the partition of India and due to the Dominion of Pakistan being sliced into two distinct and unconnected zones, the question of the defence of three more frontiers has arisen,—one separating the W. Pakistan from the Dominion of India and two on each side of the E. Pakistan. As for the present Jammu and Kashmir have decided to remain within the Dominion of India then the N.-W. frontier of the Dominion in question will meet the frontier of U.S.S.R. through Gilgit.

Ports

India has very few good harbours; because it is broken by very few inlets of the sea, the sea round the coast is very shallow and the shores are usually flat and sandy.

The principal ports of India are Bedi Bunder, Oka, Porbandar, Surat, Bombay, Marmugoa, Mangalore, Calicut, Cochin, Alleppey, Quilon, Tuticorin, Dhanushkadi, Negapatam, Karikal, Cuddalore, Pondicherry, Madras, Masulipatam, Cocanada, Vizagapatam, Calcutta. Of these Karikal and Pondicherry belong to France and Marmugao belongs to Portugal. Bombay, Vizagapatam, Madras and Calcutta are termed 'major ports' of India.

Tribal Areas

The tribal areas of the Dominion of India falls in the eastern border, *i.e.*, between Assam and Burma, inside the McMahon line and along to the S. end. The main border tribes in this region are the Monbas, Lamai (Mijlis), Nisu (Daflas), Abhors and the Naga tribes. Thanks to the Second World War, some sort of loose administration has been extended to these areas.

Before the partition of India, the Government of India which was directly responsible for the administration of the tribal areas used to grant annual subsidies to the tribesmen and the relation of the latter with the Government was regulated by sanad, custom and usage. In accordance with the terms of the partition, the successor governments are to come into agreements with the tribals for the administration of these areas under the new constitutions.

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Indian Races

Notwithstanding our strong belief that the theory of distinct races is an exploded myth, we are following usage in dealing with racial types in India. Modern raciology deals with and is emphatic more about cultures and cultural stages than with races and racial types. Anyway, history is certain about the incursions and settlements of Persians, Macedonians, Scythians, Parthians and White Huns in remote ages and of the Arabs, Armenians, Jews, and the Europeans in more recent times. This in itself is sufficient to show that India, no less than America has been a melting pot of races. It, however, stands to reason to state that the Aryan streak predominates in the higher parts of N. India, the Dravidians in the southern and the Mongolian in the Eastern India. The passing of ages and consequent inter-mixture, however has given rise to several sub-races which may be stated as follows:—

1. *Turko-Iranians*—in Baluchistan and N.W.F.P. in Pakistan, and also in N. Punjab and W. Rajputana and Kashmir, in N.W. India generally speaking.
2. *Aryo-Dravidians*—in U.P., Bihar and S. and E. Rajputana.
3. *Scytho-Dravidians*—in N. and some other parts of Rajputana, N. Bombay and some other parts of N.W. India.
4. *Mongolo-Dravidians*—in Orissa and lower Bengal and Assam.

Aboriginal Tribes

The aboriginals of India number over twenty-five millions. The bulk of these are of type described by anthropologists as *"Proto-Australoid."* In the Andaman Islands the type is negrito, while in the hills of Assam a distinctly Mongolian type is found.

Following are the main tribes of India:—(i) *Naga, Garo, Kachari, Khasi, Mikir* and *Lushai* in *Assam;* (2) *Santhal, Munda* and *Uraon* in *Bihar* and *Orissa;* (3) *Bhuiya, Bhumij* and *Khond in Orissa;* (4) *Gonds, Baigas, Korkus* in Central Provinces; (5) *Bhils* in Bombay and Rajputana States; (6) *Kurumber, Kanikar, Irular* and *Yanadi* in S. India.

Area and Population

Population of Indian sub-continent increased to 388,997,955 in 1941 which was 15·2 p.c. over 1931 census. The average density of population in India was 341 per square mile. One man in every five in the world is an India; Travancore takes the highest place in India with 47·8 p.c. literates. Nearly one-fourth of the total Indian population belongs to the Indian States. Males in India are more numerous than females. The third largest community of India after Hindus and Muslims is Christians. The aboriginals of India now number twenty-five millions.

The area of Indian Dominion is now 1,055,621 sq. miles while that of Pakistan is approximately 233,100 sq. miles. The total population of India roughly is 322 millions and that of Pakistan is 65·6 millions. About 72·9 p.c. of population in Pakistan is muslim; The density of population of India is now 328 and that of Pakistan is 281.

Languages

According to the census, there are about 225 languages and dialects in India, but many so-called languages are mere small tribal speeches spoken of by insignificant number of people. In reality 24 languages account for more than 96 per cent. of her population. But only half a dozen are really important.

The most widespread language is Hindustani, a term which covers both *Urdu* and *Hindi*, because though their script is different, they are practically identical languages in points of grammar and syntax and there is a considerable fund of vocabulary common to both. After Hindustani, Bengali is spoken by the largest number of people. It is the language of the 92 per cent. of the people of East and West Bengal and has the richest modern literature. Other principal languages of India are:—*Oriya, Marathi, Gujrati, Sindhi, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Assamese, Telugu, Kanarese, Tamil* and *Malayalam.*

Religions

India is the birthplace of two great religions of the world, *Hinduism* and *Buddhism* and is also the chief seat of *Islam* and *Zoroastrianism.* The Islamic faith was first embraced in India in the 12th century though there were Muslim invasions as early as the 8th century. There are not many Buddhists to-day in India. An important religious community in India is the Sikhs. The Jains, very small in number form the most wealthy religious community in India. Parsees are a relatively small group numbering about 100,000. They are mostly business and professional men. Regarding Christianity, tradition places India in the map of Christianity in the 1st century A.D. when St. Thomas, one of the twelve Apostles is said to have visited Southern India. The Roman Catholics are said to have visited Southern India. The Roman Catholics are said to have established their foothold in about 1500 A.D. when the Portuguese took Goa and other sea ports of Western India. The first Protestan mission came in 1706. There are at present a little over 6 million Christians in India.

Agriculture

Indian sub-continent is a land of peasants, living dangerously near the margin of subsistence. The rural population is 87 per cent. of the total population, out of which 66 per cent. is directly engaged in cultivation. In India no homogeneous agricultural system can be adopted due to regional peculiarities. The cropping and agricultural practices vary to such an extraordinary degree that no general principles can be adopted. The main food crops grown in India are rice, wheat, gram and jawar-bajra which account for about 80 per cent. of her total production of food grains.

The area annually brought under cultivation in British India is 267 million acres of which over 52 million acres are artificially irrigated and of this 267 million acres, 217 millions are cultivated with food crops.

The Indian Agriculture furnishes means of subsistence of one-fifth of the human race. It leads the world in jute, lac, tea, groundnut, cane sugar. Her position as regards rice, linseed, millet, is almost supreme in the world.

The agriculture in India is a seasonal industry. There are two principal cropping seasons—*kharif*, the summer rain cultivation and *rabi*, the winter rain cultivation. *Kharif* crops are sown with the outbreak of monsoon and harvested in September or October.

Animals

Indian climatic conditions have naturally developed a great variety of animal life and the number of animal species found in India is much greater than that in Europe.

In India, animals are chiefly seen in the valleys of the Himalayas (*i.e., Terai Forests*) extending from Kashmir to the Brahmaputra valley, on the Eastern and Western Ghats and in the jungles of Central Provinces and Central India.

(1) *Wild Animals—lion* is almost extinct and is now preserved in the Giri of Kathiawar. *Tigers* are found all over India. *Leopards* (hunting leopards), *Panthers, Cheetahs*. are common in the hills and plains. *Hyeanas, foxes, wolves, jackals and wild cats* are available everywhere. *Elephants* are found in the lower Himalayan valley, the Brahmaputra valley and forests of Niligiri hills. *Bears* are available on the hills everywhere. *Deer* and *antelopes* are commonly seen in the plains.

Yaks are only seen in higher Himalayas. *Rhinoceros* live in the swamps of Assam, Burma, North Bengal, Nepal. *Monkeys, Porcupines, Hares, wild Hogs* are to be seen everywhere.

(2) *Domestic Animals—goats, sheep, horses, ponies, asses, mules, bullocks, buffaloes,* are available here and there. *Camels* are seen in the desert districts or Rajputana, and East Punjab.

(3) *Birds*—Vultures, kites, hawks, wild ducks, wild geese, patridges, pigeons, parrots, cranes, peacocks, snipe sand grouse are available everywhere. Birds in India, as in most hot countries, are more famous for their plumage than for their song.

(4) *Reptiles*—Crocodiles are seen everywhere. The deadly snakes of India are *Cobras, Russel's Vipers, Keraits, Hamadryeds.*

(5) *Fish*—Most numerous fish are of carp family. The finest fish from angler's point is *Masher* found in all his streams. The richest and tasy fish of India is *hilsha*. Fishing waters, river and sea, of Bengal and Madras are among the most extensive in the world.

Vegetation

All the main types of vegetation region—*forest, grassland, scrubland* and *desert* are represented in India. Luxuriant forests are found in areas which have heavy rainfall—the Himalayas, Assam, Western Ghats. Smaller and less luxuriant forests occur in the drier regions of the central plateau and valley of the Deccan. Dry forest is found in the drier parts of Punjab. Grassland occurs in the regions of low rainfall and in the higher parts of mountains, such as found in Central Plateau and in the high land between the Deccan rivers. Patches of grassland also occur at intervals in the Himalayan forests. Scrubland is the region with deficient rainfall and where rain seldom or never falls, the land is desert. The Thar Desert with a border of scrubland lies between the Indus and the Luni river. The scrubland also occurs on parts of highland of the peninsula.

Geopolitics

Indian Union—After Independence Act of 1947 India is divided into nine Governor's Provinces and Chief Commissioners' Provinces. The nine Provinces are as follows:—1. West Bengal (Capital—*Calcutta*). 2. Madras (Capital—*Madras*). 3. Bihar (Capital—*Patna*). 4. United Provinces

(Capital—*Allahabad*). 5. East Punjab (Capital—*Simla*). 6. Bombay (Capital—*Bombay*). 7. Assam (Capital—*Shillong*). 8. C. P. & Berar (Capital—*Nagpur*). 9. Orissa (Capital—*Bhubaneswar*).

Following are the Chief Commissioners Provinces—1. Coorg (Capital —*Coorg*). 2. Ajmer-Merwara (Capital—*Ajmer*). 3. Delhi (Capital—*Delhi*). 4. Andaman & Nicobar Islands (Capital—*Port Blair*). 5. Panth Piploda (Capital—*Kharua*). 6. Himachal Pradesh containing 21 hill States of Simala; a newly created province.

More than 500 Indian States have joined the Dominion of India by various processes—(1) by merger into the nearest provinces (2) by forming several states into one administrative unit such as Madhya Pradesh, Vindya Pradesh (3) by acceding to India but remaining as separate unit, Mysore, Travancore, Baroda, etc. (4) forming into separate states and centrally administered as Himachal Pradesh.

INDIAN FACTS IN A NUTSHELL

Population

Every fifth man in the world is an Indian.

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All the population of the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R. and the British Isles plus all Europeans in the British Commonwealth of Nations are fewer than the population of India.

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The population of Indian Union is now about 320 millions, is increasing each year at the rate of about 10 to 15% a decade.

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The Ganges and the Indus systems contain within their delta nearly half the total population.

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The average density for the whole of India is about 246 per sq. m., the most densely populated area being Bengal of which E. Bengal, falling in the Pakistan zone, has a density of 792 per sq. m. and W. Bengal, of the Indian Dominion, has a density of 756 per sq. m. which figures are higher than that of even England & Wales which is 710 per sq. m.

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The density of population per sq. m. in the newly constituted dominions of Pakistan is 192 and the Dominion of India 262.

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The urban population of India in 1941 was 13% and the rural population 87%, the increase of urban population since 1931 census being only 2%.

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The U.P. has always had more large towns than any other province.

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The number of cities with one lakh or more inhabitants was 35 in 1931 and was 58 in 1941. During this decade the population living in cities of this size has increased from 9·1 to 16·5 millions, a rise of 81%.

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There is a steady decline of female sex-ratio in India among all communities. Except only the provinces of Madras and Orissa where there is something like numerical equality of sexes, this is true of almost all other areas. The disparity is prominent in N. India generally, more so as we go west.

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The aboriginals of India now number 25 millions and are distributed throughout Sub-Continent of India.

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In Indian sub-continent 66% were Hindus, 24% Muslims and 6% tribals 1941; since 1921 Muslims increased by and Hindus decreased by 2%. During these two decades the Sikhs increased from 3·2 millions to 5·7 millions, representing about 50%.

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The third largest religious community in India after the Hindus and Muslims are the Christians who number over 6 millions. Christian element is stronger in Madras than in any other province, Bombay and the Punjab coming next.

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In 1921 the total number of literates in British India was less than 15 millions which increased by 3 millions in 1931 and amounted to above 37 million in 1941.

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In accordance with the literacy figures of 1941, the percentage of literates in the Dominions of Pakistan and India are about 9 and 13 respectively.

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Nowhere in the world, except perhaps the U.S.S.R., does a country contain so many racial types as in India.

AGRICULTURE

India is mainly an agricultural country; 90% per people live in villages and 72 percentage are directly engaged in agriculture.

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India is a land of peasants, living dangerously near the margin of subsistence.

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The rural population of India is 87% of the total population, out of which 66% is directly engaged in cultivation.

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India is one of the most fertile lands in the world in the sense that no particular endeavour so to say is required to get produce out of land. But the average yield of every crop per acre is not only the lowest in the world but the figures are tragic. The average rice yield per acre, for example, of India, the U.S.A., Japan, Egypt and Italy are respectively about 731 lbs., 1,480 lbs., 2,307 lbs., 2,079 lbs. and 3,000 lbs.

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India's rich forests grow nearly 4,000 varieties of fine timber useful for almost every need. Some of the woods of international reputation are teak, rose-wood, ebony, sandal wood, deodar and sheesam.

* * * *

India has now the largest irrigation works and the longest mileage of canals in the world. But the total average percentage of area irrigated to area sown is lower than 19, and irrigation is one of the main problems in the question of giving sufficient food to India's millions.

* * * *

India has more than a third of world's total cattle, *i.e.*, about 255 millions. But India's cattle are worst of the lot, and they are fit only, as they do, to produce for India the largest amount of cattle hides. Beside low fertility, the major defect of Indian cattle is that an Indian cow on the average yields a little bit over 2 lbs. of milk a day compared to Holland's 20·5 lbs., England's 15 lbs. and New Zealand's 14 lbs.

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India has a huge area of 360 million acres sown with crops, of which 80% are food and fodder crops. But the net area under food crops per capita is about 0·72 acres.

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The chief crops of India are rice, wheat, sugarcane, tea, cotton, jute, linseed, groundnut, coffee and rubber.

* * * *

The main food crops grown in India are rice, wheat, gram and jawar-bajra, the total production of foodgrains being short of India's needs by about a tenth. The reason is that foodgrains production has not only not increased with the increase of population but has actually decreased.

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India produces one-third of the rice production of the world.

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India enjoys the world's monopoly of jute, of which about 73% is produced by the Dominion of Pakistan.

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India is the largest producer of oil-seeds like groundnuts, linseeds and castor seeds and is the biggest producer of groundnut oil in the world.

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India today is the largest producer of sugar, 80% of which is produced in the two provinces of U.P. and Bihar. But the per capita consumption of sugar in India is the lowest in the world.

* * * *

In tea-production and export India ranks first in the world. 76% of the total area under tea in India lies in Assam and the two contiguous districts of Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling in N. Bengal.

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India has the largest monopoly of lac production in the world.

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India ranks first among the world's tobacco producers; but the quality of tobacco produced is generally not very fine.

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After the U.S.A. India is the largest producer and exporter of raw cotton. Over 80% of the raw cotton used by the Indian cotton textile industry is Indian grown. But the quantity of long-staple cotton production and the yield per acre leave much to be desired, for the production of finer variety of yarn and cloth is far short of India's needs. Over two million 400 lb. bales of clean cotton are produced annually.

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CSL

With its 43 million sheep India is estimated to produce annually about 86 million lbs. of wool which is far short of India's needs.

MINERALS

India commands three quarters of world's supply of mica. The greater proportion of the world's requirements of better quality of sheet mica perhaps 80% is supplied from Bihar.

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India is the main source of the world's supply of limenite, manganese, monazite zircon and mica.

* * * *

India has the biggest reserves of manganese ore of which the C.P. is the largest producer and supplies more than 60% of India's total output.

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India is the largest producer of mica, indispensable towards electrical, radio and aviation industries. About 80 per cent of the world's requirements of better quality mica has so far came from Bihar.

* * * *

The biggest iron mine in the whole of Asia is a Noamundi near Tatanagar in Bihar, the home of the mineral industries of India. The total quantity of iron one in Bihar and Orissa is estimated to be sufficient for 1000 years. Indian iron ore has the highest metal content (about 55 to 70 per cent) which makes the production cost of pig iron the lowest in the world.

Next only to the U.S.A. and France, India has the largest reserves of iron ore of which she is the largest producer in the British Commonwealth of Nations, and stands ninth in the world.

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Steel contents of India's iron is about 60% which is one of the highest in the world and is equalled only by Norway.

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The annual consumption of salt in India is estimated at 530 lakh tons which means that per capita consumption of salt is one of the lowest in the world. But India's production is not sufficient for even the present rate of consumption, and the production is only ¾ of her needs.

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The total production of gold in India during the ten years ending in 1942 was 3,113,000 ounces or about 1% of the total production of the world.

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India stands 12th among the petroleum producing countries of the world, and the average production per year is about 0·62% of the world output.

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India's resources of cement-making materials is sufficiently large to satisfy her needs.

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The division of India has left the Dominion of Pakistan with very poor mineral resources, almost nothing of the industrial minerals.

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India is the second largest producer of coal in the British Commonwealth with an output of over 30 million tons a year, more than 90%

of which comes from Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, 50% coming from the Jharia fields.

TRADE & INDUSTRIES

India is one of the largest industrial countries of the world; but industry gives occupation to only about 8% of the total population of India, and the pressure on land is very great.

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The greatest Hydro-Electric undertakings in India are three schemes by Tata Sons Ltd.

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India's production of electrical energy is very small and the supply of cheap power is one of the headaches of India's industrialisation.

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India ranks fifth in the world in volume of trade. Raw materials take the biggest place in the export trade, of which jute, tea, cotton, skin and rice form half the total. About 75% of the imports consist of manufactured goods and even recently half the imports came from Britain.

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Judged by value of trade, India stands sixth and her exports used to exceed her imports.

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Clay is India's biggest mineral industry, coal coming next.

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Sugar takes the third place among Indian industries.

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The largest private manufacturing industry of India is cotton spinning and weaving which has its home in Bombay, wih important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Nagpur.

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Tata Iron and Steel works at Jamshedpur are now the largest steel works in the British Commonwealth.

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The volume of foreign capital in India's trade and industries predominate in the following industries in order of merit; trading and manufacturing, mining, banking, insurance, navigation, tea, transport, and jute.

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The Indian railway system constitutes a great capital undertaking by the State, the capital at charge being about Rs. 755 crores.

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PUBLIC HEALTH & HYGENE

Expectation of Life—Expectation of life calculated over the period 1920-30 for British India just under 27 years as against 65 in New Zealand, 67 in Australia, 59 in the U.S.A. and 63 in England and Germany, 47 in Japan.

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Infant Mortality—The rate for this in 1937 was 31 in New Zealand, 38 in Australia, 54 in the U.S.A., 58 in England and Wales and no less than 162 in British India.

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200,000 mothers die of child birth every year in India.

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The level of health is low....The resisteance to disease is low. Mal-nutrition and nutritional diseases are omnipotent—*Dr. J. B. Grant, Director of All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta.*

* * * *

Malaria causes more deaths in Indian sub-continent than any other single disease. The financial losses to the individual and the family alone have been calculated at no less than Rs. 11,000 lakhs annually or about 80 million sterling per annum. The malaria claims over 1,000,000 live per year in Indian sub-continent. Of the 6,000,000 deaths which occur annually in the sub-continent of India, 4,200,000 or over 60 p.c. are due directly to insect-form diseases.

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Malaria is the largest public health problem in India. Deaths from this disease number about a million and a quarter every year, and the number of cases is about 1,000 million per year.

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There are only one doctor for every 6,000 persons in India against one for every 1000 in Britain. In India 90% of the people live in villages but 90% of the doctors practise in towns.

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It has been estimated by certain authorities, that 30% of the population in normal times do not get enough to eat—vide *Famine Commission's Report,* Vol. II, 1945.

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At least 500,000 people die of tuberculosis every year in India and that at least five times this number are infected by the disease.

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The worst of India's three great problems are ill-health, illiteracy and poverty.

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The India's blind population is estimated at 2 millions.

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Every year 62 lakhs of people of India die from disease—36 lakhs from fevers, 5 lakhs from tuberculosis, 3 lakhs from dysentry, half a lakh from cholera and so on.

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30 per cent of the people of India do not get enough to eat, and another 30 per cent eat the wrong food and are thus under-nourished.

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30,000 death occur in India due to snake-bite.

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70,000 people die annually due to small-pox.

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Plague takes a toll of 20,000 death each year.

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Of the 62 lakhs of people who die every year in India proper (including Pakistan), 31 lakhs are children under 10 years of age and 15½ lakhs are infants under one year.

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In India proper (including Pakistan) 2 lakhs of women die every year from the effects of pregnancy and child-bearing.

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Out of 1,000 mothers in India who give birth to a child, 20 die.

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Infant mortality rate in India is now 160 out of every 1,000 children.

CULTURE & CIVILIZATION

The invention of decimal system goes to the credit of the Hindus. Besides this, they had also invented the system of algebrical methods.

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Chess was invented in India where it was known as *chaturanga.* It passed into Arabia and then to Persia. Persians called it *shatranj* from chaturanga or four angles—elephants, horses, chariots and foot-soldiers.

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Sanskrit *Mahabharata* has the unenviable distinction of being the longest poem in the world. It consists of 220,000 sixteen-syllabled lines and nearly seven times the length of the two Greek epics—*Illiad* and *Odyssey.*

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India is probably responsible for more of the fables that have passed across the frontiers of the world.

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The earliest dateable Indian painting is a group of Buddhist frescoes (160 B.C.) found on the walls of Sirguya in the Central Provinces.

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First newspaper started in India was *Bengal Gazettee* edited by James Hickey at Calcutta on January 29, 1780.

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Qutb Minar at Delhi is the tallest minaret in the world. It is 238 ft. high and rises in a sucession of fine storeys by corbelled balconies. It was built by Altamash in 1232 A.D.

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Sultana Raziyya (1236-40) was the only woman monarch who ruled at Delhi.

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The earliest Indian script is known as Brahmi. It is the parent of all the varying scripts current in India. The oldest Brahmi script has been found on a casket in *Pipvahva* Stupa about 483 B.C.

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Most famous specimen of ancient iron in India is the pillar at Delhi. Its date is 310 A.D. A curious feature of the pillar is its remarkable freedom from rust. It is 22 ft. high and is said to weight 6 tons.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

1. RAILWAYS

Growth of Indian Railways—The first railway line opened for traffic in India was a section of 22 miles of Bombay-Kalyan line in April 1853. Two other lines opened after this was Calcutta to Raniganj (120 miles) and Madras to Arkonam (39 miles). At the beginning, the East India Company or the Secretary of State for India provided free land to the railway companies and also guaranteed an interest of 4½ or 5 per cent on capital invested. The railways were to be held by the companies on leases for 99 years, but provision was made enabling government to purchase the lines after 25 or 50 years on receiving in return their capital at par. The construction of Railways was therefore left to private companies with borrowed funds on which the Government of India guaranteed the interest. This proved very expensive. The guarantee system encouraged extravagance in construction, and since at first the companies were working at a loss, the Government had to find large sums to make up the guaranteed interest. The Government next tried to construct and operate railways as a State concern but were unable to raise sufficient capital. In 1879 therefore they returned to the Guarantee System with a lower rate of interest and with closer Government supervision of construction and running. The right to terminate the contracts of guaranteed companies began to be widely exercised by government beginning with East Indian Railway in 1879. But with the introduction of purchase system, government introduced the principle of company management of State owned lines. Thus as soon as E. I. Ry. was purchased, it was entrusted to the railway company itself under new agreement for its management. This procedure was adopted later in respect of several other lines, including S. I. Ry. in 1890 and G. I. P. Ry. in 1900. But the system of company management was objected by the Indian public opinion on various grounds. So the main terms of Acworth Railway Committee in 1920 for decision was State *v.* Company management; which decided that the system of management by Board of Directors in London should not be extended beyond the terms of the existing contract. The Indian Legislative Assembly in 1923 passed a resolution in favour of State management. So from 1925 almost all the railway lines have gradually come within State management. Already government now owns more than 95 per cent of railway system. Since then the State has invariably exercised this option, so that the system has gradually passed into the possession of the State. The Companies are paid in terminable annuities, so that eventually the railways become the outright property of the State.

Railway Board—The organisation through which government control is exercised is the Railway Board, working under a Chief Commissioner for Railways who is responsible to the Government of India on matters of railway policy.

The Chief Commissioner of Railways is solely responsible to the Government of India for arriving at decisions on technical questions and advising the Government in matters of railway policy; he is not liable to be over-ruled, as the President was, by his colleagues in the Railway Board. He is *ex-officio* the Secretary to the Central Government in the Railway Department with the right of direct access to the Governor-General.

Functions of Members—*The Financial Commissioner of Railways* is the direct representative of Finance Department in the Railway Board. He is vested with the full powers of the Government of India to sanction railway expenditure subject to general control of the Finance Member. *The Member, Transportation and Member, Staff* assist Chief Commissioner of Railways in the day-to-day administration. *The Secretary, Communications Department,* functions at Board meetings along with other members of the Board.

Technical Staff—The Railway Board is assisted by a technical staff of Directors and Deputy Directors who are in direct charge to the work of the various branches of the Department and are responsible for the disposal of all but the work of highest importance. These posts are as follows—Director of Civil Engineering, Director of Mechanical Engineering, Director of Establishment, Director of Traffic. There is also a Director of Finance who is responsible for all financial matters.

Management—There are two important systems of administration-organisation on Indian Railways—*Divisional System and Departmental System.* In Divisional System, the railway is divided into divisions, each under a Divisional Superintendent who in turn has officers of all departments, like Civil Engineering, Transportation. Commercial, Accounts, Stores etc. In the departmental system the railway is divided into smaller portions called Districts and each of those Districts is under District Officer.

Objective of Indian Railways

(1) *Commercial Railways*—for the development of trade and industry of the country and also movement of traffic both inward and outward.

(2) *Protective Railways*—constructed in areas liable to famines for the purpose of protecting them in the event of an outbreak of famine by cheap and speedy transport of foodstuffs from important grain centres in India.

(3) *Strategic Railways*—connect specially by good system of Railways thase places of strategic importance from point of view of effective defence of the country.

Three Classes of Railways

For statistical purposes Indian railways are divided into three classes:—

Class I consits of Railways with annual gross earnings of Rs. 50 lakhs and over.

Class II consists of Railways with annual gross earnings of less than Rs. 50 lakhs but exceeding Rs. 10 lakhs.

Class III consists of Railways with annual gross earnings of Rs. 10 lakhs and under.

Post-War Development Scheme

A post-war scheme has been prepared estimated to cost 1200 crores of rupees over a period of 17 years, of which the expenditure during the first seven year is to be Rs. 320 crores. The plan includes (1) the construction of 5,000 miles of new lines, (2) more conveniences and better amenities for third class passengers both in trains and at stations. (3) Reduction in the number of classes of railways, (4) number of Staff Welfare measures, (5) re-grouping of railways, (6) extension of activities of railways to other transport services like roads, air, etc., (7) evolution of a new rates structure in keeping with post-war requirements, (7) improved service for goods, parcels and passenger traffic.

Railway Finance—Until 1924 the Government of India had no separate budget for railways. The Acworth Committee recommended that railways should have a separate budget of their own. The separation was accordingly effected in 1924 and it was laid down that general revenues should receive an annual contribution of one per cent on direct government investments on commercial lines as opposed to strategic lines and in addition, a small share of the profits in excess of Rs. 3 crores. A *Depreciation Fund* and a *Railway Reserve Fund* were also started.

Freight Rates—Freight rates on Indian Railways are based principally on the market value of goods carried. For this purpose commodities are grouped into sixteen classes and a maximum and minimum rates have been fixed for each class. Individual railways have full power to vary charges within these maxima and minima. These rates are calculated on the local distance over each railway system instead of on the through distance over all the systems. Hence rate for a certain mileage over two or more systems is higher than the rate for the same mileage over one system. Coal being chief source of industrial power, its rates are placed under direct control of the Railway Board.

Some Railway Organisations

Central Standard Office—A separate self-contained organisation called Central Standard Office, for the conduct of all works connected with the production of standard design and specifications for all materials, plant and rolling stock in use on Indian railways was formed in 1930. Three separate branches of this office deal respectively with mechanical engineering standards, civil engineering standards and specifications, while a separate research branch, constituted at a later date undertakes civil and mechanical engineering research.

Indian Railway Conference Association—This Association was first organised in 1871 mainly for the interchange of rolling stock between broad gauge railways. The present non-official organisation was inaugurated in 1902 when a formal resolution was passed, establishing the permanent Conference, independent of Government, with the name of the "Indian Railway Conference." The Association's main function has been to frame rules for the carriage and interchange of the passenger and goods stock, as well as to regulate the rates and fares and conditions under which the traffic shall be carried.

Clearing Accounts Office—A Clearing Accounts Office with a Statutory Audit Office attached thereto was opened in December 1926 to take over the work relating to the check and appointment of traffic interchanged between state-managed railways.

Railway Rates Advisory Committee—This was established in 1926. The function of this Committee is to investigate and recommend on—(*a*) complaints of "undue preference' (*b*) complaints that rates are unreasonable in themselves (*c*) complaints or disputes in respect of terminals (*d*) complaints in respect of conditions as to packing of articles specially liable to damage or liable to cause damage to other merchandise, (*e*) complaints in respect of conditions as to packing attached to a rate and (*f*) complaints that railways do not fulfil their obligations to provide reasonable facilities under Sec. 42(3) of the Indian Railways Act.

Central Board of Transport—has been formed for the co-ordination of all forms of transport. The two main objectives of the Board are (1) maximum co-ordination of all forms of transport and the matching of transport planning and resources with agricultural and industrial development plans of the country.

New Railway Classes and Fares

From January, 1949, for travelling purposes three classes have been settled—*1st Class, 2nd Class* and *3rd Class* in place of First, Second, Inter and Third Classes. The fare of the 1st class will be 24 pies per mile. A free allowance of 50 seers maximum would be made for luggage on every full upper class ticket.

In 2nd class, for mail and express trains charges would be 9 pies per mile, for other trains, the charge would be 7½ pies. The free luggage allowance in both cases would be 30 seers per full ticket.

In 3rd class the fare would be 5 pies per mile on mail or express trains and 4 pies per mile on other trains. The free allowance for luggage in both cases would be 25 seers.

Gauges

There are at present four distinct guages varying from 2′ to 5′-6″ prevalent in India, but the standard gauge—the *broad gauge* on Indian Railways is 5′-6″ but in 1870 chiefly for reasons of economy, the *metre gauge* of 3′-3⅜″ was adopted provisionally for certain new lines and has since been a permanent feature of the railway system. Later, in order to open out relatively undeveloped tracts, many branch and feeder lines have been constructed in *narrow gauge* of 2′ and 2′-6″.

Railway Committees

Main Railway Committee was *Acworth Committee* appointed in 1920 which made various recommendations for the improvement of Indian Railways. Its main recommendations were: (1) Railways to be managed by the State instead of Company management. (3) Emancipation of railway management from the control of the Finance Department of Government of India. (4) Establishment of Rates Tribunal to adjudicate upon disputes between railways and the public.

The *Pope Committee* was appointed in 1932 which *inter alia* made many recommendations in regard to the intensive use of locomotives, coaching stock and machinery. Disposal of uneconomical wagons, combining resources between railways, ticket-less travel and methods of increasing earnings.

The *Wedgwood Committee* in 1936 made the following recommendations: (1) reduction in locomotives and carriages under repairs, (2) amalgamation of workshop for construction of rolling stock, (3) acceleration of trains, (4) withdrawal of unremunerative services, (5) greater caution in capital expenditure, (6) a campaign to root out dishonesty and incivility from amongst railway staff, (7) development of the commercial departments of railways.

PARTITION OF RAILWAYS—INDIA & PAKISTAN

Division of Physical Assets—The capital assets of our railways were about Rs. 700 crores. On August 15, 1947, 40,524 miles of railway line were split up into two portions—6,659 miles of line in Sind, N.W.F.P., West Punjab and East Bengal within the Pakistan territory went to Pakistan and the rest comprising 33,865 route miles which fell within Indian territory came to India.

For practical reasons several of the major workshops were not divided between Pakistan and India and they were allowed to remain where they were.

Railway Staff, like the rest of government employees were allowed to exercise the option of either serving in India or in Pakistan. About 83,000 opted for Pakistan while the number that opted for Indian Railways was 73,000.

In regard to the division of capital liabilities as between India and Pakistan, the principle that was agreed to was that so far as commercial lines were concerned, India's capital liabilities would be based on the principle of book value, and not earning capacity. As regards strategic lines, India has agreed to accept 50 per cent of the liability.

(1) **Assam Railway**—The position of the metre-gauge line which traverses the north of the Brahmaputra valley within the Indian Union forms a separate Railway known as the Assam Railway with headquarters at Pandu in Assam.

(2) **Eastern Bengal Railway**—(*a*) The portion of the Broad Gauge Section roughly Darsana northwards up to Siliguri on the Main Line, including Goalundo, Faridpur, Bhatiapara Ghat, Raita, Sirajganj and Amnura Branches. (*b*) The Broad Gauge proportion roughly from Bongaon Jn. (exclusive) to Khulna. (*c*) The entire Metre Gauge section to the east of Santahar and Parbatipur within the new province of East Bengal. (*d*) Metre Gauge section to the west of Parbatipur up to Radhikapur (exclusive) including Ruhea Branch. (*e*) Khulna-Bagerhat Light Railway.

The above portions are known as the newly-constituted Eastern Bengal Railway with headquarters at Chittagong.

(3) **East Indian Railway**—(*a*) South of a point between Banpur and Darsana on the Main Line including Ranaghat-Lalgola Ghat-Santipur, Ranaghat-Santipur-Nabadwip Ghat Branches. (*b*) South of a point between Bongaon and Benapol in the Calcutta (Sealdah)-Khulna section, including Bongaon-Ranaghat section. (*c*) The entire southern section, namely Sealdah-Diamond Harbour, Lakshmikantapur, Canning, Budge-Budge Branches. (*d*) E. I. Railway will work the ferry plying between Lalgola Ghat and Godagari Ghat.

The above portions falling within the Indian Union form a Division to be known as Sealdah Division with headquarters at Sealdah. This Division will form part of the East Indian Railway.

(4) **Oudh Trihut Railway**—(*a*) Katihar-Radhikapur (on the Parbatipur-Katihar Main Line) including Kishanganj Branch. (*b*) Katihar-Gadagari Section. (*c*) Katihar-Jogmani Section including Branches. (*d*) Katihar-Manihari Ghat Branch.

(5) **North-Western Railway**—under the partition of India, the portion of N.W. Ry., falling within the area of Pakistan will continue to be known as N.-W. R.

(6) **Eastern Punjab Railway**—Portion of the former North-Western Railway falling within Indian Dominion and comprising the Delhi and Ferozepur Division.

(7) **Jodhpur Railway**—The Jodhpur Railway has also been partitioned. The lines in the Pakistan portion have been included in Pakistan Railway.

Revenue, Expenditure and Reserves of Indian Railways
(In crores of Rupees)

	1938-39* *(Accounts)*	1947-48† *(Revised)*	1948-49 *(Budget)*
1. *Receipts & Expenditure:*			
Gross Traffic Receipts	99·62	1,08·00	1,90·00
Total working expenses ..	69·18	1,00·99	1,59·78
Net revenue	30·67	8·41	32·37
Interest charges	29·30	13·61	22·53
2. *Surplus or Deficit*	1·37	—5·20	9·84
Contribution to General Fund	1·37	..	4·50
Contribution to Ry. Betterment Fund	..	..	4·50
Total Expenditure charged to the Capital	2·33	16·92	24·64
Total Expenditure charged to Depreciation Fund ..	7·08	8·51	23·43
3. *Capital at charge at the end of the year*	7,55·26	6,77·99	7,02·44
4. *Depreciation Reserve Fund* ..	19·61	92·18	90·48
Net accretions during the year	5·40	—1·70	—12·25
Closing Balance	25·09	90·48	78·23

Total Routes (miles)

1939-40	41,156	1943-44	40,512
1940-41	41,052	1944-45	40,509
1941-42	40,477	1945-46	40,578
1942-43	40,525	1946-47	40,524

Total Working Expenses (000Rs.)

1939-40	72,17,09	1943-44	1,14,08,20
1940-41	73,15,89	1944-45	1,48,76,07
1941-42	80,29,58	1945-46	1,69,30,72
1942-43	86,49,10		

Net Earnings (000Rs.)

1939-40	39,33,19	1943-44	85,24,15
1940-41	53,20,43	1944-45	84,12,35
1941-42	64,39,79	1945-46	74,28,43
1942-43	81,39,64		

Total Capital Outlay (000Rs.)

1938-39	8,47,82,21	1942-43	8,49,92,16
1939-40	8,52,59,34	1943-44	8,58,53,83
1940-41	8,53,78,17	1944-45	8,64,36,75
1941-42	8,48,05,51	1945-46	8,72,67,97

Accidents

	Killed	*Injured*		*Killed*	*Injured*
1943-44 ..	4,373	26,510	1945-46 ..	4,438	31,012
1944-45 ..	4,239	27,774	1946-47 ..	4,469	34,448

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* Figures of undivided India.

† Budget covers only for 7½ months from 15th August 1947 to 31st March, 1948.

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FREIGHT AND TRAFFIC EARNINGS OF CLASS I RAILWAYS*

Towns Carried (000)

1939	9,914	1942	10,367	1945	10,051
1940	10,110	1943	10,433	1946	10,042
1941	10,713	1944	10,891		

No. of ton miles (millions)

1939	1,924	1942	2,308	1945	2,394
1940	2,074	1943	2,330	1946	2,214
1941	2,309	1944	2,329		

Earnings from Goods Carried (Rs. Lakhs)

1939	584	1942	786	1945	941
1940	658	1943	831	1946	840
1941	727	1944	922		

No. of Passengers Carried (000)

1939	42,863	1942	50,059	1945	84,344
1940	46,173	1943	63,654	1946	91,976
1941	50,344	1944	74,639		

Passenger miles (millions)

1939	1,466	1942	1,936	1945	3,302
1940	1,574	1943	2,592	1946	3,349
1941	1,754	1944	2,998		

Earnings from Passengers (Rs. lakhs)

1939	239	1942	386	1945	688
1940	267	1943	532	1946	709
1941	315	1944	605		

Gross Earnings (Rs. lakhs)

1939	898	1942	1,361	1945	1,977
1940	1,020	1943	1,613	1946	1,795
1941	1,177	1944	1,884		

Mileage of Railways (1945-46)

Class I	*Miles*	*Class I*	*Miles*
B. A. Ry.	3,555·81	M. S. M.	2,940·31
O. T. Ry.	2,679·67	Mysore State	738·27
B. N. Ry.	3,388·14	Nizam State Ry.	1,359·98
B. B. C. I. Ry	3,404·23	N. W. Ry.	6,881·27
E. I. Ry.	4,063·55	S. I. Ry.	2,349·25
G. I. P. Ry.	3,531·26	Bikaner State	883·05
Jodhpur	1,125·69		

P. C. of Net Earning on Capital Outlay

1939-40	4·61	1943-44	9·93
1940-41	4·23	1944-45	9·73
1941-42	7·59	1945-46	8·51
1942-43	9·57		

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* Relate to Broad and Metre gauges. Annual figures relate to the year beginning from April and exclude Bikaner State Ry. upto March, 1941.

Railway Contribution

	Contribution to general revenue (Rs.)	*Transferred to Ry. Reserve Fund (Rs.)*	*Total gain (Rs.)*
1939-40	4,33,00,000	—	4,33,00,000
1940-41	12,16,00,000	6,30,00,000	18,46,00,000
1941-42	20,17,00,000	—	28,08,00,000
1942-43	20,13,00,000	8,86,00,000	45,07,00,000
1943-44	37,64,00,000	13,20,00,000	50,84,00,000
1944-45	32,00,00,000	17,88,47,209	49,88,47,209
1945-46	32,00,00,000	6,20,00,000	49,88,47,209

RAILWAY FACTS

India has the fourth largest railway system in the world, the U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Canada being the only three countries with a larger mileage.

* * * *

First proposals for railway construction of India were made in 1844.

* * * *

There are 72,000 Railway Stations in India.

* * * *

The North Western Railway serves an area more than three times that of Great Britain.

* * * *

First railway lines in India—Calcutta to Mirzapur and Bombay to Kalayan were completed in April 1853.

* * * *

Third class passengers contribute 90 p.c. of the railway receipts.

* * * *

First electric trains in India ran between Victoria Terminus (Bombay) and Kurla in 1925.

* * * *

Most Indian railway gauges are five feet six inches wide and they are the broadest in the world.

* * * *

Indian Government Railways are by far the largest industrial concern under one management in the country. They are almost completely nationalised.

* * * *

After partition, there are about 33,865 miles of railways in India; on an average Indian railways carry about 1000 million passengers and 100 million freight-tons in a year.

* * * *

The Railways' requirements for coal is 10 million tons annually.

* * * *

Taking into consideration, existing railway mileage, India has the fourth largest system in the world.

* * * *

The Railways in India yield an income of rupees two hundred crores annually, out of which nearly 150 crores are spent by way of salaries.

* * * *

The inauguration of the electrified main line section of the G. I. P. Railway from Kalyan to Poona took place on 5th November 1929 and constituted the first entirely main line of track to be electrified.

* * * *

Of the total route milage of railway in India roughly about one-half is in the Indo-Gangetic Valley.

* * * *

The busiest Indian railway is the East Indian Railway.

* * * *

The first air-conditioned coach to run in public service in India was attached to an Indian train in 1937 between Bombay and Delhi.

2. ROADS IN INDIA

Utility of Roads in India—The importance of roads and the facilities of transport in a vast country like India can scarcely be exaggerated. A system of well-kept and well-constructed roads is essential for country's economic and cultural progress. India's deficiency in the matter of roads has contributed very largely to her agricultural, commercial and industrial backwardness to-day. The most serious defect is the lack of proper and adequate road communication between villages and markets. As a result, the distribution of essentials is unbalanced and the people of the agricultural class remains poverty-stricken and inert.

The greater portion of the roads in the interior are merely mud tracts almost impassable to wheeled traffic during monsoon periods. Importance of road communications was first appreciated during the administration of Lord Dalhousie when Public Works Departments were created in each province.

The roads in India can be classed in four heads—*Trunk, Main, District* and *Village* roads.

India's Present Trunk Roads—There exist at present four great trunk roads with which most of the feeder roads of the country are linked. The most important of these roads is the *Grand Trunk Road* between Calcutta and Jamrud at the mouth of the Khyber Pass. It passes through Banaras, Allahabad, Lucknow, Delhi and Peshawar and the traffic which has passed that way across the centuries makes cavalcade of India and world history. There is another *road between Bombay and Delhi*, the whole of which is metalled and is open virtually throughout the year. *Between Bombay and Madras* there is also a good metalled road. The fourth road is *between Calcutta and Madras.* These four roads account for about 5,000 out of 95,000 miles of metalled roads of India.

But great improvement in the road development was made during the war period when many new roads were made and old roads greatly improved for military motor transport and troop movement by motor; and these improved roads are being kept up with uptodate repairs.

There are also *subsidiary roads* which are best and most numerous in Madras. Besides these surfaced roads, there is a very large mileage of *kutcha* roads in India amounting to approximately 201,000 miles, some of which are suitable for motor traffic during dry weather.

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Central Road Fund—The creation of Central Road Fund in 1929 constitutes a milestone in the history of Road Transport in India. The Fund derives its proceeds from a tax distributed to Provinces and States on the basis of their petrol consumption for the construction and improvements of roads. A Central Reserve is maintained for expenditure on special projects of particular economic importance on the road research and experiment and on special enquiries and investigations in furtherance of road development.

Road Administration—Roads are a provincial subject and may be divided into two classes—*Provincial Roads* under Public Works Department and *Local Roads* in charge of local bodies. In India proper as a whole about 80 p.c. of the extra municipal mileage is under the charge of District Boards or District Councils. All the roads in the municipal areas with the exception of certain stretches of through roads, are under the control of municipalities.

The important trunk roads in the Provinces are generally maintained from provincial revenues through Public Works Department, and local roads being in charge of District Boards, including unmetalled rural roads.

The roads are principal feeders of railways and about 50 per cent of railway mileage is paralleled by metalled roads. More than three-fourths of the total road mileage lies in the Indo-Gangetic plains. There are also several million miles of inter village *kutcha* roads in rural areas.

Bullock Cart—The bulock cart remains for centuries the main instrument of transport throughout India. These carts are mostly filled with narrow iron-tyred wheels with primitive hub and wheel arrangements. The advent of motor transport however is gradually replacing the use of bullock carts. The bullock carts generally do not pay any tax excepting those operating in municipal areas. The greatest defect of the bullock carts is the destructive effects of its iron-tyred wheels.

Motor Transport—Motor vehicles are now playing an important part in the road transport of India and are slowly replacing bullock-cart. Direct taxation of motor vehicles is a provincial subject in India. The basis of taxation varies from province to province. In addition to provincial taxes, municipalities also impose wheel taxes on vehicles in Bombay, and the Central Provinces. Indirect taxes on vehicles are levied by Central Government in the shape of import duty on motor vehicles and spare parts, import and excise duty on pneumatic tyres and import and excise duty on petrol. A sales tax is also levied on petrol in all provinces.

Under Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939 each province is divided into two or more regions with a *Regional Transport Authority* in each such region. To co-ordinate the work of Regional Authority there is in addition a *Provincial Transport Authority* in each province.

Nationalisation of Transport—To facilitate the organisation of road transport, the governments of Bombay, U.P. Central Provinces have enacted legisaltion amending the Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. Road Transport Act, 1948 has been passed by the Government of India empowering provincial governments to incorporate, regulate and if necessary, wind up Transport Corporations.

Central Road Research Institute—The Roads organisation is assisting the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research with technical advice in crystalising the plans for a Central Road Research Institute at Delhi.

Latest Development—The Transport Ministry has an expert body, the Roads Organisation which has as its objective the development of a comprehensive system of road communication having due regard to the needs of villages, districts, provinces, states and the country as a whole.

National Highways—The plan of National Highways for India came into being at the Conference of chief engineers in December 1943. The following definition of Highways was accepted by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments:—

National Highways are main highways running through the length and breadth of India; connecting major ports, foreign highways, industrial areas, large towns, cities, and capitals of provinces and major States; and including roads required for strategic movements for the defence of India.

With the effect from April, 1947, the Government of India assumed the complete financial liability for the construction and maintenance of every road which is classified as a National Highway, aggregating to about 11,200 miles in Provinces and 2,650 miles in the States subject to the acceptance by the Provincial Governments of certain conditions, namely—

(*i*) Central Government's decision will be accepted about the inclusion of any road in the National Highway system.

(*ii*) Expenditure on works will be subject to the approval of the Central Government.

(*iii*) While Provincial Public Works Departments will normally be employed, the Centre reserves the right to employ its own agency for construction and maintenance.

(*iv*) Proprietary right and legal liabilities remain with provincial governments and provincial governments will regulate traffic, prevent encroachments, control ribbon development, restrict access to National Highways and tax betterment value upon the advice of the Central Government, but Centre will not, however, receive any payment on account of betterment.

(*v*) No tolls or other imports will be levied on motor vehicles paying tax and all non-commercial Central government motor vehicles will be exempt from provincial or local taxation.

(*vi*) Provincial governments will take special care to foster development of district and village roads; and

(*vii*) Road transport will generally be controlled in conformity to an agreed code of practice.

'National Highways' has been included in the Federal List of the Draft Constitution of India. The National Highways plan after the partition of India has been fixed approximately at a mileage of 14,000 miles.

The proposed National Highways routes generally follow the existing trunk roads. The expenditure targets tentatively held in view for National Highway Words during the 1st quinquennium are Rs. 30·00 crores.

ROADS IN INDIA

	Total mileage (metalled & unmetalled)	No. of registered motor vehicles		Total mileage (metalled & unmetalled)	No. of registered motor vehicles
1934	.. 257,795	186,706	1940	.. do	136,985
1935	.. 260.101	151,193	1941	.. do	139,553
1936	.. 295,654	142,924	1942	.. do	120,645
1938	.. *not available*	146,429	1943	.. do	121,232
1939	.. do	159,245	1944	.. do	131,069

3. WATERWAYS

From ancient times, the trade and commerce of northern India has been much facilitated by the abundance of navigable streams. The combined mileage of the navigable rivers in northern India is about 26,000. The inland navigation of India which was flourishing, received a great set back with the development of railways in India.

In the past India has been great sea-faring country. The British Governor-General in 1880 reporting in London said "the port of Calcutta contains 10,000 tons of shipping built in India of a description calculated for the conveyance of cargoes to England. Sir William Digby in his 'Prosperous British India' wrote that the teakwood vessels of Bombay are greatly superior to the 'oaken' walls of old England.

Sub-continent of India has three great river systems with large number of minor streams which so long carried the inland navigation. Of this, Indus has practically gone to Pakistan. The Ganges from Hardwar to the Bay of Bengal passes through rich alluvial plains and offers unique advantage for splendid inland navigation. Brahmaputra also offers excellent chance of navigation. It is navigable throughout the year from its mouth to Dibrugarh which is about 800 miles from the sea.

Navigation canals are very few in India. The principal navigation canals are Eastern and Circular Canals of Bengal, Orissa Coast Canal and Buckingham Canal and Ganges canal running from Hardwar to Kanpur. There are also some combined irrigation and navigable canals in some of the provinces. There are less than 4,300 miles of navigable canals in India. There are also important water-ways in West and East Bengal which has made Calcutta the largest sea-port in India. The total length of waterways in India and Pakistan amounts to 25,000 (about) comprising 10,000 miles of rivers and 15,000 miles of canals.

Mercantile Marine—Geography has made it imperative for India with its long coast line to have a well-developed merchant shipping fleet. Accordingly the governments' policy is to secure rapid expansion of the Indian Mercantile Marine to a degree commensurate with our commercial and defence requirements.

The main effort has been aimed at bringing about a substantial increase in tonnage owned by Indian lines. To this end, governmental assistance has been rendered to Indian companies in sponsoring the building and purchase of ships in foreign countries. As a result of these efforts, the total tonnage of the mercantile marine which stood at approximately 1·5 lakhs at the end of war, has now been more than doubled.

A noteworthy feature is that, the building of medium-sized ocean-going vessels has begun in an Indian yard at Vizagapatam. The first 8,000 tonner turned out from this yard—the *Jala Usha* was launched in

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GSL

March 1948. Simultaneously with the expansion of the merchant fleet, government have taken steps to conserve the strength of Indian registered shipping by prohibiting the transfer without governments approval of ships from Indian Register. The coast line of India is now 3,200 miles and this offers a great opportunity for expension of coastal shipping. That the coastal trade should be ultimately reserved entirely for Indian shipping was one of the main recommendations of the Shipping Policy Committee.

4. AVIATION IN INDIA

Beginning of Civil Aviation in India—Flying began in India as early as 1911 when the first experimental flights were made by army officers in aeroplane sent to India for demonstration by Bristol Aeroplane Co. On Frebruary 1911, M. Picquet, a French pilot made demonstration flights in India and carried the first official air-mail not only of India but in the world when he flew from Allahabad to Naini, a distance of six miles only carrying official air-mail. The first passenger to be carried in an aeroplane in India was Sir Sefton Branker in 1911.

After the end of World War I in 1918, the real progress of civil aviation began in India. The first flight from Egypt to India was accomplished in November and December 1918 by Capt. Ross Smith and this was followed in January 1919 by flight from England to India by Squadron-leader McLaren and Lt. Haley. At the end of the same year Capt. Ross Smith and Lt. Keith Smith made first flight from England to Australia passing through India. The first regular air-mail service in India was organised in Jan. 1920, but this experiment lasted for six weeks. In 1925, Air Ministry in England had given a contract to the Imperial Airways Ltd. for a service between England and India.

In India Civil Aviation Department was formed in 1927, first civil aerodromes were established and flying clubs were also founded and some Indian officers were sent abroad for training for future service in the Government Civil Aviation Service.

By 1929-30 India began to occupy a prominent place on the air map of the world due to rapid development of world air transport. In March, 1929 the England-India Air Service, conceived in 1925 started after many difficulties and international complications. It was a weekly service from England flown in seven days. First internal air line in India ran from Karachi to Delhi as a continuation of the service from London to Karachi.

At this time flying clubs of India began to be started in different provinces which greatly contributed to the training of aviation among young Indians. By the end of 1930 six clubs were in active operation with the financial support of the Government and pilots and engineers were being trained for commercial aviation.

The first internal air services were opened from Karachi to Colombo and from Karachi to Lahore in 1932 by Tata Sons Ltd. and Indian National Airways respectively. The companies were given contracts for the carriage of mails.

In 1933 both internal and external air service began to take definite shape in India with participation of Indian Continental Airways Ltd. In Dec. 1934 Qantas Empire Air Lines Ltd. linked London with Australia *via* India and Singapore which is the longest air service in the world—a distance of 12,720 miles.

British Government at this stage introduced 'all-up' air-mail scheme which greatly increased the development of air transport in India. Under this scheme the whole of commonwealth letter mail was transferred to the air by most of the governments and territories on the Australian and African route. This made possible the stepping up of two feeder services in India—Karachi-Colombo and Karachi-Lahore. In 1938 there were nine external air services operating every week across India providing direct air communication between India and the provincial centres in Europe, Africa, South East Asia and Australia. In this year the internal air services also made substantial progress. The total route mileage operated by Indian Companies in this year was 5,190 and total air miles flown were 1,514,000. The companies operating were Tata Sons, Indian National Airways and Air Services of India.

With the outbreak of war in 1939, the development of aviation in India was phenomenal. The Indian Civil Aviation made large contribution to the war effort. With the entry of Japan in the war, the military demand for air transport became so urgent that it was impossible for civil companies to carry on their normal traffic and finally they became contract-operators for the Defence Services. Large aeroplanes were brought into use, new services were opened up and the frequency was increased.

Under the pressure of war, a beginning was made with the creation of an aircraft manufacturing industry. The Hindustan Aircraft Ltd. subsidised by the Government built a modern aircraft factory at Bangalore fully equipped for the quantity production of the aircraft.

At the end of the war, India possessed several hundred aerodromes, many with 2000 yards concrete runways.

Beginning with a small necleus in 1927, a sum of Rs. 45 lakhs were spent on aerodromes in the next six years. Between 1934 and 1939 a programme of works costing one crore of rupees were undertaken. In 1940 a new programme of Rs. 2½ crores was launched. In the post-war plan for expanding civil aviation the government is devoting about Rs. 15½ crores on the development of a net work of air routes.

Organisation of Civil Aviation in India—The foundation of civil aviation in India was lain by the Government of India following the first world war. At first work partaining to Civil Aviation was dealt with by a branch of Industries and Labour Department known as Indian Air Board and assisted in technical matters by Royal Air Force. After the signing of International Convention for Air Navigation in 1919 by India, the need for a Special Civil Aviation Organization was keenly felt in India.

So in 1927 Civil Aviation Department was formed and a Director of Civil Aviation with a small clerical staff was appointed for the control and development of civil aviation. The organisation of the Civil Aviation Department before the World War II comprised a Director of Civil Aviation, a Deputy Director and some technical advisers. But towards the closing years of war and immediately after the cessation of hostilities there was large scale expansion in the civil aviation organisation. The Department was reorganised. The reorganised department of the civil aviation was placed in charge of a Director-General, assisted by two Deputy Directors General and the functions of the Department were distributed among seven directorates, each responsible for several branches of civil aviation activity.

The Civil Aviation Department is at present attached to the Ministry of Communications which controls the Posts and Telegraphs Department which utilise air transport for the carriage of mails and the Air Transport Licensing Board which is an independent body vested by statute with authority to grant, amend, suspend or revoke licences to Indian operators for the operation of all scheduled air transport services, whether internal or international and to specify conditions to govern the operation of such services.

Royal Indian Air Force is in the Ministry of Defence but civil aviation is not entirely independent of military aviation. In order to co-ordinate policy with respect to civil and military aviation and to maintain the necessary liaison, a Standing Committee has been constituted comprising officers of the Ministries of Defence and Communications who meet as necessary for the settlement of important questions of policy.

The Director General of Civil Aviation is the administrative authority for controlling all civil aviation activities in India except the licensing of scheduled air transport. He is at present assisted by the three Deputy Directors General.

The Department is constituted by seven Directorates, each in charge of a Director who is responsible to one or other of the Deputy Directors General. These are—(1) Directorate of Administration, (2) Directorate of Air Transport, (3) Directorate of Training and Licensing, (4) Directorate of Aeronautical Inspection, (5) Directorate of Air Routes and Aerodromes, (6) Directorate of Communications, (7) Directorate of Regulation and Information. In addition there is a chief inspector of accidents.

Air Routes and Aerodromes—In 1931 India started the air routes and aerodromes organisation with a nucleus of four controlled aerodromes at Karachi, Delhi, Allahabad, Calcutta. The foundation of Air Traffic Control Service in India was then laid with four aerodrome officers taking control of four aerodromes. Gradually more and more aerodromes were constructed and network of aerodromes and air traffic control was provided for the main trans-Indian route, *viz.*, Karachi-Delhi-Allahabad-Calcutta-Akyab-Rangoon and the main internal routes, *viz.*, Karachi-Ahmedabad-Bombay-Hyderabad-Madras and Karachi-Lahore.

Following the outbreak of hostilities in the east during the World War II, a well-organised system of aerodromes and air routes were developed by the military authorities with the co-operation of the Civil Aviation Department. During the war the construction and maintenance of aerodromes, the standard of ground facilities and the air traffic control improved considerably. Thus after the war civil aviation department was able to resume the normal activities with about 400 aerodromes in the country for potential civil use.

In the post-war programme of civil aviation department it was decided that it was not economical to continue to maintain all the aerodromes constructed during the war. The department decided to maintain 45 aerodromes in India. 21 aerodromes located in the Indian States. In addition ten-year post-war programme provides for the construction of 21 new aerodromes mainly for local communications.

Air Traffic Control Organisation—India being a member of the International Civil Aviation Organisation, has to meet standards laid down by the Organisation in respect of aerodromes, equipments and air traffic control facilities. The Air Traffic Control Organisation is responsible for the safety and control of aircraft in the air and on the ground. The Organisation is established to promote safe, orderly and expeditious flow of air traffic. This involves considerable expenditure, ten year works programme anticipates an expenditure of Rs. 540,000,000.

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For this Air Traffic Control, the country has been divided into four regions with Area Controls at Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. The Air Traffic Control System is modelled on the standards and recommended practices laid down by the I.C.A.O.

India proposes to have three main International air-ports with runway lengths not less than 2,500 yards and capable of withstanding continuous operation by aircrafts of all-up weight of 135,000 pounds. For the international airlines, it is proposed to have aerodromes mainly of two standards, the major having runway length of 1800 yards and intermediate with runway lengths of 1500 yards. In addition minor aerodromes for local communications and emergency landings will be available with runway lengths of 1250 yards.

Aerodromes required for all-India air communications are developed and maintained by the Central Government and with the accession of Indian States, Central Government will take up the responsibility for the maintainence and development of these states aerodromes.

Internal Air Transport—At the outset the air transport in India was progressing at a slow space, but after the end of the World War II, the progress has been almost phenomenal. When the war came to a close, there were in India only two air line services, *i.e.,* the Tata Sons Ltd. and the Indian National Airways which were operating since 1932. At the end of 1945, the Government of India decided to restore commercial air transport from January 1, 1946. Under a guarantee by government of a fixed percentage of capacity revenue on their services the above two companies began to operate again. The commercial air services became so much successful that several new companies rapidly came into the field. All air services are now operated on a purely commercial basis, depending entirely on the revenue earned. The guarantee agreement with Tata Sons and I.N.A. has come to an end.

With the increase of air traffic, with a view to safeguard the interest of the public and to ensure economic and orderly development, the Government at first introduced Air Transport Licensing Rules and in July, 1946 set up Air Transport Licensing Board. No scheduled air service could be operated after October 1, 1946 except under a license granted by the board. Before the end of 1946 the licensing Board received a total of 97 applications from 20 different air transport companies for operating air services in India. In 1947 the number of companies engaged in the operation of scheduled air services increased from five to nine. In 1948 there are 10 companies in India engaged in the operation of internal scheduled air services.

Passenger fares on Indian scheduled air services have been fixed at a minimum rate of four annas per passenger mile.

External Scheduled Air Transport—Before the beginning of World War II, British, Netherlands and French companies were operating scheduled air transport services to and across India. Most of these were interrupted during the war years. Since 1946 several important countries of the world, *i.e.,* U.S.A., France and Netherlands have negotiated bilateral agreements with India and have commenced international air services through India. Other countries, *i.e.,* Britain, China, Australia, Sweden are also operating under temporary licenses. All air services from Pakistan are international service operated under bilateral agreement made on July 1, 1948.

Indian International air services are also operating to Burma and Ceylon. The most important Indian International air service is the Air India International formulated in 1947 and managed by Air India Ltd. This is a joint state and private enterprise, 49 p.c. of share capital of which is held by the Government of India with the option to acquire at any time a further two per cent capital. The Government of India has three directors in the board out of six. The company is operating a bi-weekly service between United Kingdom with intermediate halts at Cairo and Geneva.

Aeronautical Radio Service—The Aeronautical communication service of the civil aviation department was formed in the year 1946. Prior to that, radio communication for civil air transport was provided by the Post and Telegraph Department. The service is meant to provide aeronautical communication and navigation facilities for safe, regular and efficient operation of civil air transport. For the operation of the Aeronautical Communication Service, the country is divided into four regions, the boundaries of which coincide with the regions for Air Traffic Control purposes. The Communication Directorate with its headquarters in New Delhi, controls the regional centres at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras. The basic unit of the Aeronautical Communication Service is the communication station. The station provides all communication facilities for a particular aerodrome. Aeronautical Communication Service has now been able to establish 42 stations.

Flying Clubs and Aviation Training—Under the scheme of subsidy, the first flying club was started in India in the year 1928. In the years immediately preceding the war, there were seven flying clubs in British India, all subsidised and two in Indian States supported by the state. These clubs not only provided flying for sport but also helped the training of professional pilots and engineers. The activities of Flying Clubs were suspended during the World War II.

The Flying Clubs have been again revived after the war. Seven clubs are now in operation. The government assistance comprises a grant for club buildings, loan of aircraft, a fixed annual payment towards indirect costs, contribution towards flying costs per hour flown and a bonus for each 'A' license. The total cash subsidy payable to a club which carries out 5000 hours flying in a year amounts in round figure of Rs. 1½ lakhs.

The Flying Clubs now in active operations are (1) Bombay Flying Club, (2) Madras Flying Club, (3) Bihar Flying Club, (4) Delhi Flying Club, (5) Bengal Flying Club, (6) Flying Club, Lucknow, (7) Orissa Flying Club, Bhubaneswar. The three non-subsidising flying clubs are Jodhpur Flying Club, Trivandrum Flying Club and Hyderabad Flying Club. It is proposed to open subsidised flying clubs at Jullunder, Nagpur and Gauhati during 1948-49. The plans have been approved and are being executed for the establishment of a Civil Aviation Training Centre. The Government's intention into set up (1) Flying School, (2) Engineering School, (3) Communications School, (4) Aerodrome School. The first of these schools to materialise is the Radio Communication School which was started in 1946 at Saharanpur. The Flying School has begun its work in a moderate scale in 1948 at Allahabad.

Meteorological Service in Aviation—The meteorological department of the Government of India is responsible for providing meteorological service for aviation in India. The meteorological organisation for aviation in India

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is designed to provide meteorological service for aircraft commanders, for all international, major and minor aerodromes in India and for all persons concerned with aircraft operation. Meteorological centres on air routes are classified into 5 types—

(*a*) Provincial forecast centres located at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Nagpur and Madras which maintain forecast and weather watch for 24 hours and prepare weather charts.

(*b*) Dependent Forecast Centres located at Ahmedabad, Allahabad, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Jodhpur, Lucknow and Vizagapatam which maintain forecast and weather watch from dawn to dask or as required and prepare weather chart.

(*c*) Auxiliary Meteorological Centres—At present there are 10 stations of this type at Bhopal, Bombay (Juhu), Calcutta (Bally Bridge), Cochin, Gaya, Jamnagar, Jharsuguda, Srinagar, Amritsar and Bhubaneswar. They normally supply local weather reports and latest available current weather reports of the surrounding aerodromes on scheduled air routes.

(*d*) Pilot baloon observatories—at present there are 47 pilot baloon observatories in India, most of them are located at or near airfields.

(*e*) Current Weather Observatories—at present there are 31 meteorological centres of this type in India which maintain current weather watch at aerodromes and supply weather reports.

Aircraft Factory—The establishment of an aircraft manufacturing company at Bangalore in 1940 marks another important milestone in India's aviation progress. Government of India have approved the scheme which entails a 20-year target of self-sufficiency for building planes for the R.I.A.F. as well as for civil aviation.

Aircraft Schools—Technical schools, run by the pioneer airlines are now training engineer-apprentices to cope with specialized maintenance and overhaul aviation work. Government Communications School at Saharanpur is turning out qualified radio operators and ground crew while a Flying Training School and Aerodrome School for training in flying, flying control and aerodrome administration are to be opened at Allahabad and a engineering school and repair organisation is to be started at Barrackpur.

Air Transport Figures —The following figures of air transport statistics will indicate the rapid strides that civil aviation has made in India during the past two years ending June 30, 1948.

	July 1, 1946 to July 1, 1947	June 30, 1947 to June 30, 1948
Hours flown	48,629	66,554
Miles flown	7,509,660	10,594,242
Load capacity	14,536,945 tons miles	21,475,088 tons miles
No. of passengers carried	188,796	314,546
	lbs.	lbs.
Weight of freight carried	2,310,164	6,216,127
Weight of mails carried	1,356,741	1,320,398
Weight of newspapers carried	227,680	2,804,230
Total load ..	10,915,075 tons miles	17,148,622 tons miles

10-Year Programme—The construction of 21 new aerodromes, estimated to cost Rs. 54 crores, is provided for in the Indian Government's 10-year programme of development of civil aviation in the country including a capital expenditure of over Rs. 5 crores on the development of the international airports—Santa Cruz in Bombay, Dum Dum in Calcutta and Palam in Delhi.

After partition, the Bombay air-port became the first air-port of entry to the Indian Dominion from the West. To cope with the increase in the volume of air traffic, both international and internal at Bombay air-port, urgent development works were taken in hand immediately. The Government of India have sanctioned a project of Rs. 2,78 crores for the development of Bombay air-port. The Bombay air-port when developed, will be capable of handling aircraft up to all-up weight of 200.000 lbs.

To meet the demands of increasing international and internal air traffic through Calcutta air-port, India's gateway from the East, considerable expansion of the air-port has been planned. Calcutta air-port, when developed, will be large enough to handle aircraft up to an all-up weight of 135,000 lbs.

Palam air-port has, provisionally been declared as an international air-port for Delhi. The innternational air-port for Delhi will be developed on the same lines as the international air-ports for Bombay, and Calcutta. This air-port, when developed, will be capable of handling aircraft up to all-up weight of 200,000 lbs.

Latest Developments—On June, 1948, there were 23 Indian Companies with an authorised capital of Rs. 422 crores. Of these, nine operated 38 schedule air services, internal and external on 23 routes covering 13,675 route miles employing 191 aircraft 229 pilots and 140 other air crew personnel. The total number of aircraft registered at the end of June 1948 was 614 as compared with 551 at the end of December, 1947.

INDIAN AIR SERVICES

Air India Ltd., Bombay—
- Karachi-Ahmedabad-Bombay
- Hyderabad-Madras-Colombo
- Bombay-Delhi
- Bombay-Madras-Colombo
- Madras-Bombay
- Bombay-Ahmedabad-Jaipur-Delhi
- Bombay-Calcutta
- Madras-Bangalore-Cochin-Trivandrum

Indian National Airways Ltd., New Delhi—
- Delhi-Calcutta
- Delhi-Jodhpur-Karachi
- Calcutta-Rangoon
- Delhi-Lahore
- Delhi-Amritsar

Air Services of India Ltd., Bombay—
- Bombay-Keshod-Porbandar-Jamnagar-Bhuj-Karachi
- Bombay-Bhopal-Kanpore-Lucknow
- Jamnagar-Wadhwan-Ahmedabad
- Bombay-Bhavnagar
- Bombay-Gwalior-Delhi

Deccan Airways Ltd., Begumpet—
- Delhi-Bhopal-Nagpur-Hyderabad-Madras
- Hyderabad-Bangalore
- Hyderabad-Bombay

Mistri Airways Ltd., Bombay—
- Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta

Ambica Airlines Ltd., Bombay—
- Bombay-Bangalore
- Bombay-Baroda-Bhavnagar-Ahmedabad
- Bombay-Jodhpur
- Bombay-Rajkot-Morvi
- Bombay-Bangalore

Air Services of India—
- Jamnagar-Mandvi-Bhuj

Airways (India) Ltd., Calcutta—
- Calcutta-Bhubaneswar-Vizagapatam-Madras-Bangalore

Calcutta-Bagdogra-Gauhati-Dibrugarh.
Calcutta-Dacca
Calcutta-Nagpur

Bharat Airways Ltd., Calcutta—
Delhi-Lucknow-Patna-Calcutta
Patna-Benares
Delhi-Amritsar
Calcutta-Chittagong
Delhi-Madras
Hyderabad-Bangalore

Orient Airways Ltd., Calcutta—
Calcutta-Akyab-Rangoon
Calcutta-Dacca
Karachi-Calcutta
Karachi-Peshawar

Dalmia-Jain Airways—
Delhi-Amritsar-Srinagar

Indian Overseas Airlines (Star Line)—
Madras-Lucknow-Madras
Nagpur-Jubbulpur-Allahabad-Kanpur-Lucknow
Nagpur-Hyderabad-Madras

Jupiter Airways—
Delhi-Nagpur-Vizagapatam-Madras

FOREIGN AIR LINES

Pan-American World Airways—*Calcutta to New York, via* Karachi, Istanbul, London, Shannon, Gander. (40 Flying hours).

Calcutta to San Francisco or Los Angeles, via Bangkok, Shanghai, Tokyo, Wake, Honolulu. (60 Flying hours).

Air France—Paris-Saigon *via* Tunis, Cairo, Karachi, Calcutta.

British Overseas Airways Corporation—London-Calcutta *via* Bordeaux, Castle Benito, Cairo, Basra, Karachi, Delhi.

K. L. M.—Karachi-Calcutta, Karachi-Bangkok, Karachi-Singapur, Karachi-Batavia.

Trans-World Airline—Washington-Bombay.

China National Aviation Corporation—Calcutta-Hongkong *via* Kunming.

Qantas Empire Airways—.

Air Ceylon—Colombo-Madras.

Air India International—Calcutta-Bombay-London.

Indian Overseas Airlines—

SOME IMPORTANT DATES

1911—First Official Air Mail on 18th February 1911 flown from U.P. Exhibition grounds, Allahabad to Naini Junction by M. Picquet, a French aviator.

1911—First passenger to be carried in an aeroplane in India was Sir Sefton Branker.

1912—Jules Tyck and Baron de Carters gave India her first public flying demonstration at Calcutta (Christmas Eve).

1918—First Flight from Egypt to India by Capt. Ross Smith.

1919—First Eng.-India flight by Sqdrn.-Leader McLaren & Lt. Haley.

1920—First Air-mail service was organised by Government of India and operated by R.A.F. between Karachi and Bombay *via* Rajkot.

1927—Imperial Airways sent their first air-liner to India (Delhi), January, 8.

1927—Civil Aviation Department formed in India.

1928—First Flying Club in India.

1929—First regular air-mail introduced between England and India by a weekly service.

1930—First pilot trained in India with Commercial 'B' License was Bhagat Lal.

INDIAN SHIPPING

Position of Indian Shipping—Regions of India, Burma and Ceylon though containing over 18 p.c. of the population of the World, account only for a little over 3 p.c. of the trade, while Europe with a population barely fifth of the world provides more than half of the trade of the world. The U.S.A. with a population one third of Indian region has a trade four times as large as that of India.

Although geographical positions of the different countries and their agricultural potentialities have a bearing on the foreign trade of the countries concerned, it is industrialisation that is the deciding factor which determines a country's share in the world trade.

Fortunately, India possesses an abundance of raw materials for her industry; and the industrialisation in the post-war era is progressing rapidly, and her export trade is expanding. Judging from the available export-import figures and from the ever-increasing demand for capital goods from abroad and other countries' demands from India of her specialised products and raw materials the export-import position of India to-day is such as to enable her to occupy an important place in oceanic shipping.

Indeed, even her erstwhile share in the world trade certainly entitled her to a much greater percentage share in the world tonnage than she had. But the deliberate anti-Indian policy of the previous Governments prevented her from rising up to her stature.

British Domination in Coastal Trade—As is well known, as a result of the political domination of India by the United Kingdom, British shipping has also dominated both the coastal and overseas trades of India. In the coastal and the Eastern adjacent trades barely 25 per cent of the tonnage operating is Indian, the rest being wholly British. In the other routes where the carriage of trade is not shared by the other countries interested in the trade it is confined almost wholly to British tonnage as in China, East and South Africa, Iraq, Iran, China and Australia. Thus in 1939 while the trade between India on the one hand and on the other Germany, Italy, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Japan and the United States was concerned, the ships in the trade carried the flags of their respective countries. If there was any sharing it was done not by Indian but by British tonnage.

A National Shipping Policy—It is therefore refreshing to note in this connection the change that had come over in the attitude of the Government of India in 1946 as a result what the Government stated in regard of pressure of public opinion. This is to their post-war shipping policy:

"For a country of its size, the length of its coast-line, and its strategic position athwart one of the world's main trade routes, India possesses a distressingly small number of deep sea ships, which at the outbreak of war stood at no more than 30 with a total of less than 150,000 tons gross. India's weakness in this respect has long been recognised and the Government of India are pledged to a policy of assisting in the development of an Indian Mercantile Marine. . . The vulnerability of India's position has been revealed by the stress of war-time conditions, but by no circumstance more glaringly than by her inability to find adequate shipping from her own resources to provide for the transport of food supplies required by her. The rectification of this state of affairs should be one of the immediate post-war objectives, not only for commercial reasons but also

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because the development of the Royal Indian Navy necessarily implies the concurrent development of the Merchant Navy."

Speaking in November 1947, Mr. C. H. Bhabha, the then Commerce Member, recounted the broad outlines of policy, as follows—

1. Government should immediately take the initiative in establishing two or three shipping corporation.
2. In each corporation, in order to secure and retain effective control, Government should contribute not less than 51 per cent of the total capital. The balance would be subscribed either wholly by an approved existing shipping company or partly by such company and partly by the public.
3. Each Corporation will have a capital of Rs. 10,00,00,000.
4. Government would be entitled to nominate a number of directors on the Board of Directors of the Corporation proportionate to the share of the total capital subscribed by them.
5. Ordinarily, 100,000 tons would be regarded as the optimum tonnage for operation by each corporation.

Target of two million tons—The present National Government have fully appreciated the seriousness of the situation and have assured all possible assistance in the development of India's shipping. A long-term target has been set of 2,000,000 tons gross and steps are being taken to raise the figure of Indian tonnage to about 600,000 tons gross by 1950, that is, a fourfold increase as compared with the position in 1946. The formation of three Shipping Corporations on the lines outlined above is under way.

Geographically, the central position occupied by the Indian Ocean in the oceanic regions of the world, with the Pacific and Atlantic flanking on either side, and with the North covered by the continental mass of Eurasia, gives India an enviably commanding position in the ocean trade routes of the world, and enables her advantageously to develop her maritime trade and shipping on an unprecedented scale.

India's Maritime Trade—India's maritime trade to-day may be summarised in the following categories:

Pure coastal trade, originating and/or terminating at ports on the coast of the Union of India and the *non-coastal trade i.e.,* the balance of the maritime trade with other countries of the world which would be styled as overseas trade. This latter may further be divided into: (1) Indian Ocean Trade; (2) Atlantic Ocean Trade; (3) Atlantic or Pacific Ocean Trade. The first of these may be further divided into Western *i.e.,* comprising South and East Africa, Red Sea and Persian Gulf, and Eastern including Burma, Ceylon, Malaya, China, Japan, Australia.

As against the trade of India in the Indian Ocean is the trade of the country with the regions of the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans. These trades may be further sub-divided into the trade with the Atlantic Region the main section of which is known as the U. K./Continental Trade and the Atlantic Pacific Region Trade which is covered by the counrties of North and South America.

Rebirth of Ship-building Industry—A landmark in Indian history was reached on March 14, 1948 when s.s. *Jala usha,* the first steamer made in India by Indian labour with the aid of Indian finance and under Indian management was launched by Pandit Nehru, the Prime Minister of India.

The tonnage on the Indian register to-day is in the neighbourhood of 3 lakhs. The target set by the government and the country is 20 lakhs

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of tons for carrying India's entire coastal trade and for substantial carriage of overseas import and export trade in Indian bottoms.

Before the war, India had no capacity for building ships of the modern type (manufactured from steel). But though this industry started during the war at the initiation of the British Admirality, within a short period of 5 years it produced 100,000 gross tons of shipping besides two of the World's largest floating docks of 50,000 gross tons each.

There are at present six firms in India having ship yards, but with the exception of Scindia Steam Navigation Co. Ltd., Vizagapatam, others are mainly meant for repair work or construction of coastal craft below 1,000 gross tons. Scindias have a well-planned programme for the construction of modern ships at Vizagapatam where they have already completed 2 berths with a well-equipped workshop. The Scindias and its associated companies have at present 22 big and 18 small ships.

Shipping Corporation—Government of India has taken the decision in 1949 to form shipping corporations for the expansion of Indian shipping and its participation in overseas trade. One of the corporations is to be started at once which will be managed by Scindia Steam Navigation Company Ltd., which will act as Managing Agents of the Corporation. In the case of each corporation the ultimate capital or liability of the government will be between 51 per cent and 74 per cent of Rs. 10 crores. The probable sum required for the first corporation will be Rs. 7 crores.

IMPORTANT DATES

1919—Scindia Company first launches its first steamer on high water.

1941—Dr. Rajendra Prasad lays foundation stone of Indian ship-yard at Vizagapatam, June, 1941.

1948—Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru launches for the first time Indian-made and Indian-financed s.s. *Jala usha* at Vizagapatam, March, 14.

PORTS OF INDIA

Characteristics of Indian Ports—India is remarkably deficient in harbours. The west coast ports with the exception of Gulf of Cutch ports, Gulf of Cambay ports, Bombay, Cochin are practically closed to traffic from the end of May to the beginning of September by the violence of monsoon, and the east coast is surf-bound and without any natural harbours, though Madras and Vizagapatam, are artificial harbours which, offer a safe berth to vessels in all weathers. Calcutta is handicapped not by its distance from the sea but by the bars which tend to form in the Hooghly. As a result of these physical characteristics practically 90 p.c. of India's sea-borne trade is centred in four ports, *i.e.*, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, and Vizagapatam.

The minor ports are *Bhavnagar* in the Gulf of Cambay, *Mangalore*, *Calicut*, *Tuticorin*, *Nagapatam*, *Bimlipatam*, *Masulipatam*, *Pondicherry*, *and Cocanada*.

Indian States contain following important ports *Bedi* (Nawanagar), *Porebandar* (Porbandar State), *Bhavnagar* (Bhavanagar State), *Quilon* (Travancore), *Mandvi* (Cutch).

Port Trusts—The ports of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Vizagapatam are for administrative purposes placed under the control of bodies styled Port Trusts or Port Commissioners. These bodies are composed of Trustees or Commissioners partly nominated and partly elected who are subjected to the control of the Local or Imperial Government, have wide powers vested in them by law to levy dues and taxes in connection with the landing and shipping of goods and to utilise the amounts so realised for the betterment of the amenities of the port. With the partition of the country, Karachi and Chittagong two of India's major ports went to Pakistan, the other five namely, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Cochin and Vizagapatam coming to Indian Union while the last two are directly under the control of the Central Government, the others are administered by Port Trusts.

DESCRIPTION OF PORTS

Kandla—With the loss of Karachi after partition, there is no big port along 1,000 mile-long coast line between Bombay and Karachi to serve vast hinterland. So Kandla has been selected for a major port of India on the coastline of Kathiawar and Cutch. Kandla creek situated at the eastern end of the Gulf of Cutch, constitutes a natural sheltered harbour and is easily navigable. It has maintained a depth of water over 30 feet since 1851. The geographical position of Kandla is best suited to replace Karachi in its service to hinterland. Delhi is 656 miles from Kandla as against 783 mile from Karachi.

Bombay—Bombay is the natural outlet for India's trade with the west. It is strategically situated in the middle of the west coast of the country, this enabling it to draw up a vast hinterland extending beyond the uplands of the Deccan to the fertile Indo-Gangetic plain and it is close to Aden and the Suez Canal as any other west coast port. The affairs of the port are under the supervision and control of the Bombay Port Trust, consisting of a Chairman appointed by Government and twenty-one members elected and nominated. The harbour, which is one of the safest and the most spacious in the world, covers 75 square miles and provides secure and ample shelter for shipping at all seasons of the year, being 14 miles long, 4 to 6 miles wide with a general depth varying from 22 to 40 feet. There are three enclosed wet docks and two dry docks. Besides the enclosed docks there are situated along the harbour front a number of 'Bunders' or open wharves and basins where the traffic carried by coasting and country craft and "overside" cargo from the docks and stream is handled. Seeds, hides and skin, cotton, oil cakes, piece goods, food grains, turmeric, ores, tobacco are chief exports.

Madras—was an open roadstead with surf-beaten coast line, but the present harbour has been formed by two concrete walls projecting into the sea so as to enclose a space of about 200 acres with an entrance from north-east within which as many as 14 vessels drawing up to 31"—6" can be accommodated.

The chief imports into Madras are rice, and food grains, coals, oils, manures, papers and stationery, timber, sugar, dyeing and tanning substances, metals, glass and glassware, chemicals, hardware, machinery, motor vehicles, cycles and accessories, cotton manufactures, provisions, railway plant and rolling stock, etc.

Cocanada—About 80 miles South of Vizagapatam. Principal exports consist of raw cotton, groundnuts, castor seeds.

Calcutta—is situated in latitude 22°33'N longitude 38°21'E on the river Hooghly. It is about 80 miles from the sea and is the largest port on the eastern side of India. The principal feature of the port is the difficulty of its approaches. The Hooghly with its winding course, many shoals and strong currents cannot be regarded as a natural waterway for ships of the size now trading to the port. So the port is always kept by skilled pilotage by exact buoying and marking of deep water channels, by accurate surveying and by dredging. Calcutta's shipping is at the mercy of the tides. The ships can enter and clear only at a fixed hour corresponding with the tides. The pilotage on the Hooghly, one of the most difficult waterways in the world was under the direct administrative control of the Government of India till May 16, 1948 when it was handed over to the Calcutta Port Commissioners for administrative reasons. The port serves the great jute, tea and coal industries, the wheat and seeds traffic of Bihar and the United Provinces and generally the agricultural areas tapped by the main lines of East Indian, Bengal and Nagpur and E. B. and Assam Railways and by numerous waterways connecting the delta with the interior of Bengal and Assam. Through Calcutta passes roughly one-half of the total sea-borne traffic of India.

The advantage of Calcutta as a port is as follows:—

(1) Calcutta is at the head of Indo-Gangetic basin which is the most densely populated area in India.

(2) It has in its hinterland jute factories, coal mines, iron mines, petroleum mines, mica mines, manganese mines, tea estates which find their foreign markets through Calcutta.

(3) Iron-smelting industry which produces pig iron is also established in the hinterland of Calcutta.

Cochin—is a major port on the Malabar Coast of India, 580 miles from Bombay. It is a port with 120 square miles of sheltered back waters hidden behind the narrow opening to the sea. It is the most important port between Bombay and Colombo. The system of backwaters running parallel with the coast affords cheap transport and excellent water-ways connecting several places of importance in the Cochin and Travancore States. At present there are 9 large and 2 small berths in the harbour for mooring steamers.

Tuticorin—This port is open all the year round and has next to Madras and Cochin the largest trade in southern India. The harbour is so shallow that steamers anchor about 5 miles from the shore and continuous dredging is necessary to keep the channel open between the sea and roadstead. A Port Trust was formed in 1924. There is a considerable trade with Ceylon in rice, pulses, onions, chillies and livestock.

Vizagapatam—is now a major port with great promise for the future. It is nearly midway between Madras and Calcutta. Being connected with C.P. by rail, it exports great quantities of manganese, cotton and oil seeds from that province. The principal exports are manganese, myrabolams, niger, rapeseeds and oil cakes and principal imports are sugar, cotton, piece-goods iron, timber and machinery.

It is now the centre of ship-building industry in India where Scindia Steamship Company have established ship-building yards. Foreign imports are directly received from foreign ports. It is a natural harbour. The ship-yard can build ocean-going vessels with a maximum length of 550 ft. and a maximum carrying capacity of 12,000 tons cargo.

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Mormugao—on the Konkan coast, south of Bombay is situated on the eastern extremity of Mormugao Peninsula in Portuguese India about five miles south of Panjim or Nova Goa, the capital. Its principal exports are manganese, groundnuts, cotton, cocoanuts, etc.

Bedi—Principal port in the State of Nawanagar in Bedi Bandar, situated a few miles from the city of Jamnagar, at the head of a tidal creek some eight miles long, near the mouth of which is the roadstead called Rozi in which ocean going vessels lie at anchor.

Oka—is situated in a detached portion of Baroda State far distant from Gaekwar's main territories in Gujarat. It lies in a strategic position at the extreme northeast point of the Kathiawar penninsula readily accessible to all steamers trading along that coast. The port is available even to large ships at all states of trades and at all seasons of the year.

Bhavnagar—Halfway up the Gulf of Cambay on its western side lie the port and town of Bhavnagar, the capital of the State of that name. Bhavnagar is situated on a creek several miles from the open waters of the Gulf.

Surat—situated 14 miles from the sea with which it is connected by a river negotiable only by small country craft, Surat was one of the earliest and most important of the East India Company's factories. But the trade of Surat has considerably declined due to the rise of Bombay ports.

Mangalore—is a tidal port served chiefly by backwater communication with hinterland Mangalore is the north-western terminus of S. I. Ry. The chief exports to Europe are pepper, tea, cashew kernels, coffee, sandalwood from Mysore, rice, salt fish, dried fruits, fish manures.

Calicut—is the capital of the Malabar district and is some 42 miles from Tellicherry and 90 miles from Cochin. The port is practically closed during the south-west monsoon from the end of May, until the latter half of August. The principal exports are coir, coir fibre, copra, coffee, tea, pepper, ginger, rubber, groundnut, raw cotton and fish manure.

Alleppey—is the premier port and commercial centre in Travancore and is situated about 35 miles south of Cochin. A canal connects the port with the interior backwaters. It possesses a roadstead affording safe anchorage during the greater part of the year. The chief exports are copra, coconuts, coir fibre and matting, cardamoms, ginger and pepper.

Quilon—is the Coilun of Marco Polo. It is connected with Alleppey by backwater. The chief industries are cotton spinning and file manufacture.

Dhanushkadi—is the terminus of S. I. Ry. on the south-eastern extremity of the Island of Rameswaram at the junction of Palk Strait with the Gulf of Mannar and connected with Talaimannar in Ceylon.

Negapatam—is the chief port in the Tanjore District about 13 miles south of Karikal. Numerous sailing craft trade between this port and Ceylon.

Karikal—is a French settlement covering an area of 53 square miles and a sea board of 12 miles and is almost surrounded by Tanjore district. The chief traffic is rice, betelnuts, matches, fireworks and kerosine oil.

Pondicherry—is the capital of the French settlements in India, is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 104 miles south of Madras. The roadstead possesses a good anchorage. Pondicherry is the centre of the export trade in groundnuts from French Territory and adjoining Indian districts to Marseilles.

MINISTRY OF CULTURE · GOVERNMENT OF INDIA
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Bombay Port

		Imports (tons)	*Exports* (tons)			*Imports* (tons)	*Exports* (tons)
1939-40	..	3,350,000	1,975,000	1943-44	..	4,437,000	2,189,000
1940-41	..	2,849,000	2,184,000	1944-45	..	4,573,000	1,595,000
1941-42	..	3,244,000	2,895,000	1945-46	..	4,548.000	1,902,000
1942-43	..	3,521,000	2,835,000	1946-47	..	3,776,000	1,499,000

Madras Port.

		Imports (tons)	*Exports* (tons)			*Imports* (tons)	*Exports* (tons)
1939-40	..	895,651	391,955	1943-44	..	696,007	374,079
1940-41	..	625,109	289,126	1944-45	..	2,053,006	511,461
1941-42	..	573,296	297,372	1945-46	..	1,833,496	658.332
1942-43	..	337,188	158,591	1946-47	..	1,400,229	336,674

Vizagapatam Port

		Imports (tons)	*Exports* (tons)			*Imports* (tons)	*Exports* (tons)
1944-45	..	119,675	285,480	1946-47	..	99,909	538,675
1945-46	..	57,987	410,842				

INDIAN AGRICULTURE

India's Supremacy in Agriculture—(1) Three-fourths of the people of India are directly engaged in or dependent on agricultural or pastoral pursuits. (2) India is the world's greatest grower of sugar-cane. (3) India has the second largest area of rice in the world. (4) In cotton it ranks next only to U.S.A. (5) It leads the world in the production of ground-nuts and occupies second position in regard to linseed. (6) In jute and lac India possesses world's monopoly. (7) Next to China, India is the world's biggest producer of tea. (8) India holds record for its cattle population. (9) Rice is by far the most important crop in India. (10) Wheat is the most important commercial grain in India. (11) Cotton is the most important commercial crop in India. (11) India holds virtual monopoly of lac.

Position of Agriculture—Agriculture is India's basic industry and accounts for more than 70 p.c. of her population. Yet such has been the dependence of the country upon food imports from abroad, particularly rice imports from Burma, that as soon as that source of supply was cut off during the last war by the Japanese occupation of Burma, the Government of India had to make special efforts not merely to utilise efficiently all her available domestic resources, but also to obtain supplies of food from U.S.A. and other foreign countries. The imports of food-stuffs from abroad grew more and more costly and became a heavy drain on the country's exchange resources. Moreover, in order to sell the imported foodgrains at a reasonable cost, the government had to spend enormous sums of money by way of subsidy. It has been estimated that the total subsidy bill of the Government of India amounted by the end of 1947 to nearly Rs. 22 crores per annum.

Effect of Partition on Agriculture—There was an adverse effect on Indian Agriculture due to partition of the country. Most of the important irrigation works in India are located in West Punjab and Sind, and the consequence of partition was that Pakistan obtained 28 p.c. of the total irrigated area of the country although its share of the cultivated area was only 13 p.c. The Indian Union has a larger *per capita* acreage under food crops than Pakistan, but it has been estimated that in the aggregate the Indian Union would have a deficit of 3 to 5 million tons of food-grains, while Pakistan would be self-sufficient.

Land Reclamation—The total area under cultivation in Indian Union at present is 170,808,000 acres of this about 30 million acres are double or triple cropped, that is to say, two or more crops are raised in them consecutively in a year. The net area which is uncultivated but can be classified as cultivable waste is about 62,413,000 acres, and the government is anxious to bring this large area under cultivation by a steady policy of land reclamation and colonisation. To this end, U.P. government assisted by the Government of India has recently started one of the biggest ventures of its kind undertaken in Asia, as a result of which 50,000 acres of waste land in Terai and 20,000 acres in the Ganga. Khadi will be reclaimed for cultivation. This scheme has since been followed by two other similar schemes—one in C.P. and the other in Matsya Union.

Government Departments and Agricultural Research—Central Secretariat of Agriculture with agencies in the Provinces was first started in 1894 as a result of the recommendations of the Famine Commission of 1880. But their function was to collect statistics and facts and not to conduct scientific inquiries and research. First serious attempt to introduce scientific research in Agriculture was made in 1889, when the Secretary of State for India deputed Dr. Voeloker, Consulting Chemist to the Royal Society of Agriculture in England to go to India and advise on the application of chemistry to Indian Agriculture and on improvements in it. His report in 1891 constitute a landmark in the history of the development of the State's policy towards agriculture. Second landmark of the new agricultural era came from the initiative taken by Lord Curzon with the foundation of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa in 1905 and a year later the Indian Agricultural Service came into being. The Imperial Agricultural Research Institute remained at Pusa until 1934, when the great Bihar earthquake damaged the buildings beyond repair. The Pusa Institute was removed to Delhi. The Institute's principal work has been the improvement of wheat and sugarcane. The Institute is divided into six main sections: Agriculture, Chemistry and Soil Science, Botany, Mycology and Plant Pathology, Sugarcane Breeding and Entomology. With gradual expansion, Agricultural Colleges were started in Poona, Cawnpore, Nagpur, Lyallpur, Coimbatore. In 1905 All-India Board of Agriculture was founded with the object of bringing Provincial Agricultural Departments more in touch with one another. In order to train up young men for modern agriculture and for research in agricultural problems, Government of India have recently opened *Central College of Agriculture* at Delhi. The government has also put on permanent basis the *Indian Institute of Fruit Technology* which was started in 1941 at Delhi.

The Imperial Department of Agriculture now deals with All-India Agricultural problems and maintains the following institutions: (1) *Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi;* (2) *Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Mukteswar;* (3) *Imperial Institutions of Animal Husbandry and Dairying, Bangalore and Wellington;* (4) *Cattle-breeding farm, Karnal;* (5) *Creamery at Anand;* (6) *Imperial Cattle Breeding Station, Coimbatore* and (7) *Sugar Bureau, Cawnpore.*

Fertiliser Factory has been started at Sindri (Bihar) which is state-owned and managed by the Central Government in close association with Provincial and Indian State Governments for the production of ammonium sulphate from the factory.

Royal Commission of Agriculture 1926—with the introduction of reforms in 1920, the absence of a central machinery having both power and ability to guide, stimulate and co-ordinate research in the provinces was keenly felt. The Royal Commission of Agriculture emphasized the supreme necessity for continuous research and elaborated an all-India machinery for its co-ordination. The Commission said "an organisation for agricultural progress not based on research is merely a house built on sand." The machinery devised by the Commission was the *Imperial Council of Agricultural Research* formed in 1929. It is composed of two bodies. One i.e. the *Advisory Board* consisting of experts representing the provinces, the Constituent States, the Universities and scientific bodies and the second body known as *Governing Body*. This is composed of the ministers of Agriculture from provinces and States, representatives of Central Legislature and commercial federations. This body is responsible for the general policy and the financial administration.

Another important development of the Agricultural Commission's recommendation is the establishment of the *Central Agricultural Marketing Department* in 1935 for (1) grading and standardisation of products, (2) establishment of regulated markets, (3) organisation of producers for bulking produce and disposing of them, (4) improvement in rural communications and provisions of subsidiary roads. The Agricultural Produce (grading and marketing) Act was passed in 1937 providing for the grading and marketing certain articles of agricultural produce. Up to now 14 commodities have been brought under the operation of this Act. These graded products bear the seal *"Agmark"*.

There are also *Indian Central Committees* on jute, cotton, tobacco, etc. to assist in the improvement and development of the production and marketing these products and all matters incidental thereto.

Crop Seasons—There are two well-marked agricultural seasons in India. First crop begins with the commencement of monsoon and is harvested in autumn. This is known as *kharif crop*. The second crop begins in the autumn and is harvested in spring. This is known as *Rabi crop*. This crop season mainly applies to Northern India.

Principal *Kharif crops* are—wheat, rice, jawar, bajra, maize, cotton, etc. Principal *Rabi crops* are wheat, barley, gram, linseed, rapeseed and mustard. But in Southern India, the *Kharif* or *Rabi* crops have practically no distinction, because of the absence of any marked distinction between various seasons.

Leading Crops of India—Crops of India may be classified as follows:—(1) *Food Crops* such as (*a*) Rice, (*b*) Wheat, (*c*) Barley, (*d*) Millets, (*e*) Pulses and Grams, (*f*) Sugarcane, (*g*) Spices. (2) *Fibres*—(*a*) Jute, (b) Silk, (c) Hemp and Flax. (3) *Oilseeds*—(*a*) Linseed, (*b*) Mustard, (*c*) Rape, (*d*) Groundnut, (*e*) Cocoanut, (*f*) Castor, (*g*) Sesamum. (4) *Drugs and Beverages*—(*a*) Poppy, (*b*) Tobacco, (*c*) Tea, (*d*) Coffee, (*f*) Cinchona, (*g*) Indigo.

Food Crops—*Rice* is the leading crop of India and occupies 30 per cent. of the total cultivated area of India. Southern and north-eastern India are the home of rice. It is generally regarded as winter crop being mainly harvested in December and January. Rice is a special crop of monsoon lands. Sufficiently high temperature, high rainfall and fertile alluvial plains are necessary for the growth of the crop. It is sown in the months of May to August. There are two other varieties of comparatively small importance, namely, autumn rice and summer rice. Autumn rice is sown in May and June and harvested in September, and summer rice is sown in January and February and harvested in May and June. India produces more than 50 per cent. of world's total production of rice. The total area under rice cultivation in India fluctuates around 75 million acres with a yield of about 25 million tons.

It is grown in West and East Bengals, Madras, Bihar, United Provinces, Central Provinces and Orissa. Despite her large output, India is not self-sufficient in regard to her rice requirements.

Wheat which is a *rabi* (spring) crop in India is sown from October to December and is harvested from March to May. It stands next to rice in importance. Northern India is the home of wheat. It is a staple food of the people in the Punjab, U. P. and N. W. F. Province. India produces about one-tenth of world's wheat. There are two principal species grown in India, one of these being normal 'bread' wheat of Europe and the other so-called 'marconi' wheat. It is grown in Punjab (East & West), United Provinces, C.P., Bombay and N. W. F. Provinces. The annual outturn is about 10 million tons. It is also grown in the Indian States of Central India, Gwalior State, Punjab States, Rajputana States. Two-thirds of the Indian production of wheat is from United Provinces and the Punjab (East & West).

Sugarcane—The northern provinces of India are responsible for 97 per cent. of the total cane-production of India. The chief growing provinces are—U.P., East Punjab, Bihar, Orissa, Madras, Bombay and Assam. Of the total sugar produced, U.P. accounts for 55 per cent., Bengal 12 per cent., Bihar 10 per cent., Punjab 6 per cent. and Madras 7 per cent.

Barley is chiefly grown in U.P. and Berar. United Provinces is the predominent barley growing area in India.

Spices are of numerous varieties grown throughout India and mainly in extreme south but certain varieties are cultivated every where. Indian spices are *pepper* (grown in Bengal, Malabar, Coorg, Canara and Travancore); *Chillies* (in Bengal, Madras and Bombay); *Ginger* (in Bombay, Bengal, U.P. nad Madras); *Cardamom* (in the forsets of Southern and Western India, Mysore, Madras, Travancore and Canara); *betelnuts* (in Bengal and S. India); *Cinnamon* (in Western Ghats of S. India).

Millets: Jowar (in Madras called cholam) and *Bajra* are two varieties of millets and they constitute an important group of food crops for masses of Madras, Deccan, Hyderabad. *Bajra* is a *kharif* crop while *jowar* is a *kharif* as well as *rabi* crop. *Bajra* is small pearly grain and makes a nutritious unleavened bread. There are other species of millets; one of importance is *ragi* with forked head and small grain, also *maize* and *barley*. *Maize* (*Makai or Butta*) is rich nitrogenus matter and fat and contains more proteins when ripe than any other common cereal. The leading provinces of millets are Bombay, Madras, C.P. and U.P. and Punjab.

Pulses—There are many kinds in India and they play an important role in nutrition and help to balance the diet. These pulses are often grown mixed with cereals. The common grams (*chana*, *chhola* etc.) is perhaps the most widely grown pulse in India. Bihar, United Provinces, Punjab

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and contiguous areas of C.P. constitute the greatest gram-producing zone of India. Other varieties are *khesari, masur, moog, mattar mashkalai.*

Drugs & Beverages—*Tobacco*—About 40 per cent. of the total quantity of tobacco produced in the world grows in India.

Poppy is grown in the following places—Bihar, U.P., Indian States of Indore, Gwalior, Bhopal and Mewar. It is a government monopoly.

Cinchona is mainly grown on the government plantations of Nilgiri Hills and Darjeeling.

Hemp or ganja yields three distinct substances—(1) *bhang*, (2) *charas* and (3) *ganja*. These are narcotic substances grown in Bihar, Bengal, Malabar coast. Hemp is also used as fibre; as a fibre, it is grown in Bombay C.P., U.P. and Madras.

Tea—India next to China, is the largest producer of tea in the world. Indian tea is mainly grown in Assam and West Bengal. South India is also a growing producer of Indian tea. Assam produces more than 50 p.c. of Indian tea. The districts of Darjeeling and Jaipaiguri are the main producers of West Bengal tea. The major portion of South Indian tea comes from Travancore and Mysore. Most of the tea plantations in India are on hill slopes between 2,000 and 5,000 ft. above sea level. India produces black tea only. The various interests of the industry are now controlled by four sets of bodies--India Tea Market Expansion Board, India Tea Licensing Committee, Tea Associations of Northern and Southern India and in respect of Northern India, the Tea District Labour Associations.

Coffee is sown and transplanted in rainy season. The harvesting period is from October to January. This industry is confined to Southern India comprising Madras Presidency, Coorg and the States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mysore produces about 50 per cent. of total Indian coffee. India Coffee Cess Act, 1935, provides for the creation of fund to be expended by a committee for the promotion of cultivation, manufacture and sale of Indian coffee.

Fibres—*Cotton*—India is the second largest producer of cotton in the world. Cotton holds the first place among the commercial crops of India. Though it is a dry region crop it grows into dry region of Bombay and also in the moist province of Bengal. The total area under cotton in India varies from 18 to 24 million acres. The leading provinces as regards production are Bombay, C.P., Berar, Punjab, Madras, Bengal, Central India, Rajputana. Half of the total area is confined in Bombay and Berar.

Hemp is another fibrous plant grown in India. It is grown in C.P., U.P., Bengal and Bombay. It is largely utilized for the production of coradge and canvas.

Jute is autumn crop, being sown from March to May and harvested in August and September. It is practically a monopoly of East and West Bengal. The importance of Jute can be gathered from the fact that it forms about 20 to 25 per cent. of the exports from the whole of India.

Silk—Mysore is responsible for two-thirds of total output of silk in India. In Kashmir, silk is a state monopoly. The chief area of *Mulberry* silk are the (1) districts of Murshidabad, Malda, Rajshahi and Birbhum in Bengal, (2) Dehra Dun and Pertabgarh in U.P., (3) Kohat, Peshawar, Gurdaspur in Punjab and Kashmir. *Tassar* silk is available in Chota-

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nagpur and Central Provinces. *Eri Silk* grows in Rangpur, Bogra (E. Bengal), Jalpaiguri (W. Bengal) & Assam; *Muga Silk* in Assam, Manipur.

Oil Seeds –India is one of the world's largest producer of oil-seeds. She leads the world in the production of groundnut and is second only to Argentina for linseed. She is also a substantial producer of castor, rape and mustard seed.

(*a*) *Linseed* is a *rabi* (spring) crop, being sown from August to October and harvested from January to April. It is used in the manufacture of paints, printing ink, floor cloth, etc. It is abundantly grown in C.P., Bihar, Orissa and U.P., Bombay and Bengal.

(*b*) *Rape* and *Mustard* are also *rabi* (spring) crops. Mustard oil is favourite edible oil of Northern India. It is grown in Bengal, Punjab, Behar and U.P.

(*c*) *Sesamum* is mainly autumn crop, being generally sown from May to July and harvested from October to December. Used for making margarine, soap and burning oil. Principal growers are C.P., U.P., Punjab and Bengal.

(*d*) *Castor seed* is the virtual monopoly of India and is principally grown in Nizam's Dominions, Central Provinces, Bombay and Madras.

(*e*) *Groundnut*—India occupies first place among the producers of groundnut in the world. It is principally grown in Madras, Bombay and C.P. and Hyderabad. Madras, accounts for 71 per cent. of the crop.

(*f*) In *Cotton Seed* production India occupies the second place in the world, the first being U.S.A. The annual average production is about 2·6 million tons. The cotton seed oil is used as an edible oil and as adulterant and numerous things.

(*g*) *Coconut*—most important function of cocoanut palm is to yield the nut used as food as well as a derivative of vegetable oil. Cocoanut oil is also the best oil for making soaps. Cocoanut oil is a good illuminant and cocoanut stearine is used in some kinds of candles. Other cocoanut palm products are coir, oil cake, shell charcoal. Malabar and Coromandal coasts are the seats of cocoanut industry. The best cocoanut industry is known as 'Cochin' oil. It is principally grown in Madras, Travancore, Cochin and Mysore and also in small proportion in Bengal and Bombay.

Agricultural Production

A—Food and Beverage

	Rice (000 tons)	*Wheat* (000 tons)	*Raw Sugar Gur* (000 tons)	*Tea* (Million lbs.)	*Coffee Cured* (Million lbs.)
1939 ..	23,950	9,963	3,387	443	60
1940 ..	25,715	10,767	4,661	464	35
1941 ..	22,129	10,027	5,794	501	32
1942 ..	25,331	10,037	4,371	564	40
1943 ..	24,876	11,032	5,076	574	36
1944 ..	30,641	9,741	5,848	511	39
1945 ..	28,162	10,551	5,481	575	39
1946 ..	26,672	9,038	5,416	..	56
1947 ..	28,141	7,788	5,576	..	..

B—Non-Food

	Cotton (000 bales of 400 lbs.)	Jute (000 bales of 400 lbs.)	Others Oil seeds (000 tons)	Tobacco (000 tons)
1939	5,051	9,738	1,872	491
1940	4,909	13,172	2,094	476
1941	6,080	5,460	2,075	468
1942	6,223	9,047	1,955	491
1943	4,702	6,990	2,084	431
1944	5,259	6,189	1,889	376
1945	3,580	7,791	1,950	405
1946	3,530	5,352	1,793	424
1947	3,566	1,658	1,816	..

Classification of Area (Indian Union)

	1939-40	1940-41	1941-42	1942-43	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46
Area according to village papers ..	401,776	401,929	401,963	403,215	403,033	402,698	403,044
Area under forest ..	62,677	62,869	62,973	62,812	62,666	62,128	62,491
Area not available for cultivation	62,510	63,151	63,002	62,924	62,869	62,448	62,413
Other uncultivable land excluding current fallows ..	70,650	69,388	69,205	69,439	68,937	68,118	68,556
Fallow lands	36,846	35,201	35,728	35,318	33,894	35,079	37,937
Net Area sown ..	169,093	171,320	171,055	171,877	173,828	174,086	170,808
Irrigated Area ..	37,526	38,270	38,360	36,817	37,538	38,277	39,228

CATTLE IN INDIA

Importance of Cattle in India—Cattle plays an important role in the rural economy of India. In all agricultural operations oxen are indispensable to Indian farmers. The value of hides, bones, hoofs and horns is also of considerable economic importance. The contribution of cattle wealth to the economy of India is estimated to be Rs. 19,000 millions annually.

India contains more cattle than any other country in the world. It commands a third of the worlds stock of bovines. It is largely used in agricultural purposes such as ploughing and pulling wagons. But Indian cattle are of inferior quality because there is indiscriminate breeding and a majority of them do not possess characteristics of any breed. The Agricultural Research Institute has recently undertaken to build up pedigree herds of Indian cattle. Moreover many young cows and young buffaloes are slaughtered when they go dry because of lucrative prices offered for them and for other economic reasons. The Agricultural marketing department

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has suggested that indiscriminate slaughter of such cattle should be prevented by legislation and that cattle salvage stations should be established in big towns throughout India to take in such cows and buffaloes when they have been rejected by city milkmen.

The most important cattle-rearing region is in the north-west. It is a belt of land extending from Kathiawar through Rajputana and the Punjab to Kashmir. The finest animal is bred in Gujerat. Other areas where cattle is reared are the Malwa plateau and the northern Madras. Sheep and goats are reared in largest numbers among the mountains of Kashmir and on the dry pastures of the Punjab and the Deccan Hills. Camels are also used in Rajputana, Sind and other places as beasts of burden. Elephants are also used for work in Assam. But the position of Indian cattle has not improved due to the following causes: (1) Refusal of orthodox Hindus to destroy old, diseased cows on religious grounds, (2) Lack of food, (3) Proper breeding, (4) Want of grazing lands, (5) Unscientific method of rearing animals and (6) Want of cross-breeding.

Species of Cattle—Indian cattle belong to two species *i.e.*, oxen and buffaloes. They are quite distinct and do not interbreed. India possesses aproximately 166 million oxen and 47 million buffaloes. They are about one-fourth and three-fifth respectively of total recorded oxen and buffaloes population of the world.

Cattle breeds—India has excellent breeds of cattle, for draught or milk or for both. For draught, the following varieties are the best—*Hissar* (Punjab), *Harina* (Punjab) *Kankrej* (Gujarat), *Amritmahal* (Mysore), *Malwi* (Central India). The following are famous for milk—*Red Sindi* (Sindh), *Sahiwal* (Punjab), *Gir* (Kathiawar), *Ongole* (Madras). The average milking capacity of Indian cow is only 525 lb. for the whole year, but the Sahiwal variety can produce 6,000 to 7,000 lb. in a year.

Indian buffalo is superior to Indian cow. The best known buffaloes are of Punjab, Jafferbadi buffaloes of Kathiawar and the Surti and Pandharpuri buffaloes of the Bombay Presidency.

Another cattle wealth of India is *sheep*. Estimated number of sheep in Indian 4½ crore with an average produce of 8½ crore pounds of wool. The wool-producing provinces are N.W.F.P., Baluchistan, Sind, Punjab, U.P., Rajputana and Western Indian States. The average production of wool per sheep in India is 1·9 lb. There is an Wool Analysis Laboratory in Poona for the research of wool fibre and various other improvements.

Sheep is reared chiefly for mutton and wool. The woolly sheep is found is Coimbatore, Mysore, large portion of Deccan, Rajputana, Punjab (both West and East), Bihar and Bengal. Bengal and Patna sheep are noted for their good yield of wool and fatty mutton. The Delhi-Hausi or the Tuttyghur sheep are the finest and the largest animals in India.

India's *goats* number about 58 millions of which 39 millions are in Indian sub-continent and 19 millions in Indian States. Goats are prized for their meat and milk. Goat contributes only 3 p.c. of the total milk supply of India.

Pigs—Indian pigs belong to two principal species namely Indian wild boar found throughout India and pigmy hog in the forests at the base of the Himalayas in Nepal Sikkim and Bhutan. Pigs are useful for bristles, lard, meat (pork, ham, bacon) and skin.

Horses are mainly used for transport. The Kathiawar breed of horses known as *kathi* is famous for its great powers and endurance. The Marhatta pony, the little Gujarati and Bimthadi of the Deccan are also

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famous. The ponies of Manipur are regarded as the best in India. Bhutia pony is also famous for powers of endurance and weight-carrying capacity.

Animal Products—Besides animal products of milk and wool, the principal animal products of India are blood bones, horns, ivory, tallow, and hides and skins. Bones are used as manure and for manufacture of buttons, handles, toys, glue and as a source of superphosphates. Supply of horns comes from U.P., Punjab, Madras and Bengal. Buttons, toys, manure, glue, gelatine, etc., are made by horns. Ivory is used for the manufacture of ivory goods, bones and teeth. The supply comes from Assam, Western Ghats and Mysore. Tallow is derived from the fat of beef, mutton and goats. It's principal uses are as an adulterant, lubricant, and illuminant and in the manufacture of soaps and candles.

Provincial Distribution—The largest number of oxen is found in the United Provinces which possesses 23·0 million head or nearly 14 p.c. of the total for the country. This is closely followed by Bengal where there are nearly 22·6 million oxen or approximately 13·6 p.c.; Madras 9·6 p.c. of the total. For Buffaloes: U.P.—9·3 million or 29 p.c.; Punjab—6·92 million or 13·2 p.c.; Madras—6·1 million or 13 p.c.; Bengal—1·1 million or 2·3 p.c. of total buffaloes in India.

Density of Cattle Population—The densities of oxen per 10 acres of cultivated area, per 100 persons and per square mile of the country as a whole are 4343 and 106 heads repectively. The all-India average of density of buffaloes works out to 12, 12, and 30 respectively.

Trade in Cattle—Bengal is the principal importer, followed by Bombay, U.P. and Bihar. The main exporting province in order of merit are Punjab, Bihar and Orissa.

Effect of Partition—The partition of the country has affected our cattle economy adversely. It is estimated that India is left with 137,704,000 cattle and 40,713,000 buffaloes and per capita milk consumption has been reduced from 7 ozs. to 5 ozs. India has also lost three of the best breeds of cattle—*Red Sindhi, Sahiwal* and *Therparkar*.

Cattle in Br. India

	Bull & Bullocks (000)	*Cows* (000)	*Buffaloes* (000)	*Sheep* (000)	*Goats* (000)
1920-21 ..	46,569	35,795	17,967	22,023	24,045
1924-25 ..	48,558	36,433	18,849	23,140	38,982
1928-29 ..	48,650	36,484	19,080	22,987	37,223
1932-33 ..	48,988	36,518	19,436	25,117	35,249
1936-37 ..	48,563	36,936	20,420	23,754	36,249
1940-41 ..	46,855	36,445	18,995	28,520	39,254

FORESTS IN INDIA

Forest Wealth of India—The forests in India play an important part in the country's agricultural and economic developments. The forests cover nearly 155,000 square miles, about 25 p.c. of the total area. Of this area nearly 50,000 sq. miles is private forest and of remaining 100,000 sq. miles, about 90,000 sq. miles are managed by the Provincial and State Forest Departments and the rest being controlled by other departments and Panchayets. India contains an infinite variety of types of forest vegetation, governed by the variations in climate, soil, elevation and other local factors. The forests of India are a source of considerable wealth. They yield valuable timber. The forests also yield large quantities of fuel. The variety and abundance of Indian economic forest products (technically called 'minor forest products') is perhaps unequalled in any other similar area in the world.

Full value of India's forest wealth is not to be assessed merely in terms of money, timber output, fuel and innumerable by-products; for forest land serves other ends, by mitigating the extremes of the fiercest climate in the world and breaking the force of the world's heaviest rainfall.

The types of forests—are as follows—(1) *Arid forests* containing trees like *babul* are found in Rajputana and dry regions. (2) *Deciduous forests* consisting of trees like *sal* and *teak* are found in Sub-Himalayan regions. (3) *Evergreen forests* consisting bamboos, palm, fern, etc., are found in regions where rainfall is heavy. (4) Hill forests of *Deodar,* firs etc., are found in the elevated regions of the Himalayas. (5) *Tidal forests* are found in the coastal regions of India.

Classification of Forests—The forests are divided into four classes, *First,* protective forests, those which are necessary for the prevention of soil erosion and floods; *Secondly,* timber forests, which form a source of revenue to government; *thirdly,* minor forests which chiefly supply fuel, fodder and timber to local population; *Fourthly,* pasture lands which are not strictly forests but are under Forest Department for convenience.

Forests are further classified into *Reserve* forests, *Protected* forests and *unclassified* forests. In reserve forests there is strict control of forest officers; in protected forests the local villagers usually have rights of grazing, fuel and fodder cutting which are recorded and supervised by forest officers. In the case of unclassified forests, there is no systematic attempt at their management

Forest Service—The foundation of forestry service and of a scientific forest policy was laid in 1865, when the first Inspector-General of Forests was appointed. The forestry was at first administered by the Central Government but now by Provincial Governments. The Central Government still however retains an Inspector-General of Forests and a Central Research Institute at Dehra Dun.

The Forest Service comprises four branches—(1) Indian Forest Service, (2) Indian Forest Engineering Service, (3) Provincial Forest Service, (4) Subordinate Forest Service.

Forest conservancy is impossible unless backed by suitable forest legislation. The first piece of forest legislation to be enacted was Forest Act of 1865. This empowered local governments to frame rules for the management and preservation of government forests to be notified as such by them. This act was replaced by the Indian Forest Act of 1878. The new Act provided for the constitution of reserved forests and prescribed penalties for forest officers.

Forest Education—The Forest Research Institute and colleges, Dehra Dun, devoted to forest research, improved utilisation of forest researches and education in forestry, was originally founded in 1867 as the 'Forest School.' The Institute has developed into a large institution of international repute under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture.

India's Forest Products—Major products of the Indian forests are timber and fuel woods, and minor products are essential oils, dyeing and tanning substances, gums and resins, lac, beewax and honey etc. The principal varieties of timber is *Sal, Teak or Sagun, Jarool, Deodar, Sissoo, Toon.* The important trees of commercial importance are Oak, Rosewood, Sundri, Simul, Babul, Mulberry, Siris, Neem, Palas, Jam, Kusum and Mango.

Oil trees are *Chandan* or sandal-wood found in southern India (Mysore, Coorg, Western Ghats, Nilgiris). The oil is also extracted from the seeds and nuts of various other trees, such as *Chalmugra, Satinwood, Croton, Pine, Deodar, Kusum, Neem, Mohua, Garjan.*

The gum and resin yielding trees of India are *Babul, Catchu, Sal, Pine, Mango* and *Banyan. Asofoedita* or *hing* is available in Kashmir only.

Timber is used for railway sleepers, furniture and building purposes. The principal varieties are Sal, Teak. The Sal is available in tropical forests at the foot of Himalayas and the tropical forests of Central India. Teak is obtained in Chanda district of C.P., North Canara, Annamalai Hills, Travancore and also in Orissa, Bengal, Bombay and Eastern States, and Berar.

Jarool is employed for making cheap classes of furniture. It is found mainly in Assam, East and West Bengal, and is also found in Chotanagpur.

Deodar grows in Western Himalayas. It is extensively used as railway sleepers, also for bridge work and house-building, wood curving. It comes mainly from forests of Punjab, Kashmir.

Sissoo is used for agricultural implements, frames of carriages, boat-building, furniture and wood-carving.

Toon or Indian mahogany is used for furniture, wood-carving, boat and cane making.

Oak is available in Eastern Himalayas, Khasia Hills and Manipur. It is used for buildings, agricultural implements, axe-handles.

Rosewood is found in various places from Nepal to Travancore. It is used extensively for furniture, cabinet-work, knees of vessels, agricultural implements, combs, ornamental articles, finely carved chairs and tables.

Satinwood is found in the dry forests of Circars, Konkan, Deccan and Karnatak and is common in Satpura range. It is largely used for cabinet work, picture frames, furniture etc.

Indian Blue Pine is grown extensively in the temperate Himalayas. It is used for planking, doors, windows and furniture, tea boxes.

Fir is grown in outer Himalayas, the Punjab and Kashmir and is used for packing cases, crates, shingles, boards, paper pulp.

Babul tree grows in Western India and is used for all forms of agricultural implements.

Sundari is available in the deltaic regions of Bengal, particularly in Sunderbans and in the coasts of Orissa. *Jam* and *Palas* trees are largely employed for building purposes and agricultural works.

Canes and Bamboos are extensively found in Eastern Nepal, Sikkim, Bhutan, Assam, Bengal, Central Provinces, Deccan, Konkan and Coromandal Coast. Cane is used for basket works, mats, walking sticks, ropes and in the manufacture of paper.

Grasses are generally used for fodder for the cattle. *Sabai* grass is used for paper making. *Munjh* grass growing in all parts of India and specially in the Punjab is used for thatching, paper-making, chairs, baskets, ropes and cordage. *Rhea* grass found in Assam and Bengal is used for belting, sheeting, lace, net, cordage, sacking, etc.

Lac is an important Indian forest product. It is produced from an insect which secretes its larvae on certain class of trees. Lac is produced throughout the warm tropical areas of the whole of India. The principal places of production are C.P., Bihar, Bengal, Assam, Sind and Gujrat. Lac is extensively used in the manufacture of gramophone records, plastics, lacquer work, mouldnings of ornaments, paint, and varnishes, sealing wax etc.

Bees Wax and Honey are also important forest products. Beeswax is used in candles, foundry moulding, calico printing and medicine. It is largely used by the shoemakers of India.

Gums and Resins—gum and resin yielding trees in India are *Babul, Catechu, Sal, Pine, Mango* and *Banyan.*

Forests in Indian Sub-continent

	Area under Forests (000 Acres)	*Proportion of Forests to Whole Area*		*Area under Forests (000 Acres)*	*Proportion of Forests to Whole Area*
1920-21 ..	66,357	13%	1938-39 ..	68,148	13%
1924-25 ..	66,835	13%	1939-40 ..	68,112	13%
1928-29 ..	66,794	13%	1940-41 ..	68,280	13%
1932-33 ..	66,631	13%	1941-42 ..	68,336	13%
1936-37 ..	67,163	13%			

Out-turn Forests in Br. India

	Timber & Fuel (000 cu. ft.)	*Minor Produce* (000 cu. ft.)		*Timber & Fuel* (000 cu. ft.)	*Minor Produce* (000 cu. ft.)
1921-22 ..	216,213	1,26,19	1932-33 ..	223,305	1,03,73
1924-25 ..	152,249	1,27,35	1936-37 ..	258,277	1,00,99
1928-29 ..	262,037	1,35,24	1940-41 ..	306,478	1,25,11

Forests of India

1. India has about 155,000 sq. miles of forest or 25 per cent of the total land area under forests.
2. The forest centre at Dehra Dun is probably the largest of its kind in the world.
3. Assam is the biggest forest province of India.
4. Annual production of timber in India is 220 million cubic feet.
5. India enjoys a practical monopoly of lac trade.
6. India produces 4,000 varieties of different timber.

DAIRY FARMING

The Dairy industry in India is in very infant stage. It is almost a cottage industry confined to households. It has been estimated that total milk production in India is 14·4 million tons, of which 3 p.c. is contributed by goats, 46 p.c. by cows and 51 p.c. by buffaloes.

India is very backward in animal husbandry, though she has the largest cattle population of the world. India possesses the fourth of the world's cattle production. Indian cattle are of inferior quality because there is indiscriminate breeding and a majority of them do not possess characteristics of any one breed. The Agricultural Research Institute has recently undertaken to build up pedigree herds of Indian cattle. For this purpose, cows attaining a standard of milk yield of 6,000 lbs. or more per lactation and satisfying other criteria are maintained, surplus cattle being from time to time sold either by public auction or on the recommendation of provincial Agricultural Departments. For economic reasons and particularly because of the fact that lucrative prices are offered in towns, many young cows and buffaloes are slaughtered when they go dry. The Central Agricultural Marketing Department has suggested that indiscriminate slaughter of such cattle should be prevented by legislation.

The average milking capacity of the Indian cow is very poor indeed. It is 525 pounds for the whole year. But there is a great possibility of increase as the special herds of cows of the Sahiwal breed have produced as much as 6,600 to 7,744 pounds.

The Indian buffalo is superior to the Indian cow as a milk producer, its annual performance being 1,270 lbs. as against 525 lbs. of the cow The butter-fat in the milk of the Indian cow is 5 p.c., as against English cow's 3·8 p.c., in the buffalo it is 8 p.c.

Dr. Ackroyd, the nutritional expert with the Government of India says "the milk of Indian cows contains 25 per cent to 50 per cent more fat than that of European cows, while buffaloes' milk contains more than twice as much. The higher fat content of milk produced in India compensates to some small extent for the low yields per milking animal."

Average daily *per capita* milk consumption in India has been estimated from 5·8 oz. to 10 oz. Sind is highest with 18 oz. *per capita*, followed by the Punjab with 15·2 oz., Bombay, U. P., N. W. F. P. and Bihar 7·0 oz. *per capita*; C.P. and Assam 1·8 and 1·3 oz. *per capita*.

Less than one-third of the total milk supply is consumed in the form of fresh liquid milk.

Bulk of milk supply of the country is produced in rural areas.

The principal centres of ghee are Khurja, Aligarh, Hathras, Shikohabad, Etawah and Balliah in U.P., Darbhanga, Dinapore and Lakhisarai in Bihar and Guntur in Madras.

Indian Dairy Science Association—was formed in 1948 with the object of advancing the cause of the science of dairying in India by co-ordinating and unifying the activities of dairy scientists in the country towards rapid advancement of nation's dairy industry.

Indian Dairy Council—has been inaugurated in 1948 with the object of promotion and safeguarding the interests of the dairy industry in India. It is a common platform on which representatives of various interests of the milk industry, such as producers, consumers, trade and technicians could meet together for developing it on sound and economic footing.

Diary Institute—There is an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where are given 2 years' courses for diploma Dairying.

Ghee Production in India—The annual production of Ghee in Indian Dominion is estimated at one crore and fifteen lakh maunds *i.e.* half of what it was in undivided India ten years ago. In order of importance, the main ghee-producing areas are Punjab, U.P., Madras and Bihar which account for 15·7, 13·8, 9·8 and 5·4 of the total production respectively. Thus three-fourths of the ghee production is concentrated in Northern and Western India and the remaining two-fifths is scattered in the rest of the country. Taking the country as a whole, India produces 8·9 maunds of ghee per square mile, 21·4 maunds per village and 3·6 maunds for 100 persons. The annual per capita consumption of ghee in India is highest in Gwalior and Sind with 15·5 and 11·2 seers respectively and the lowest in Hyderabad and Bengal with 1·1 and 1·3 seers respectively. Of the total ghee production nearly 30 p.c. is retained by the producers for domestic consumption and 70 p.c. is marketed.

India imports about 66,000 maunds of ghee mostly by land frontier routes from Nepal. India also exports about 66,000 maunds of ghee to the Straits Settlements, Burma, Federated Malaya States and Africa (*From Ghee Marketing Report of the Government of India 1948*).

Ghee Adulteration—With a view to distinguish genuine from adulterated *ghee,* the Government of India have been developing an organisation for grading and marking of genuine *ghee.* The grading organisation started its work in 1938 and its mark is now known as Agamark. In 1947 the amount of agamarked *ghee* was about 2½ lakh maunds. The indequacy will be clear when we see that this 2½ lakh maunds of certified agamarked ghee constitutes only 2·2 per cent of the ghee produced in the country. On an average only one sample is collected and examined for every 550 maunds of ghee consumed in the country. Experience has shown, generally speaking 50 per cent of the samples tested are found to be adulterated.

At present the grading under the Agamark is voluntary.

Plan for increasing Milk Production—A Five year plan for increasing milk production has been prepared by the Diary Development Adviser of the Ministry of Agriculture—(1) milk-cum-bull production farms, (2) small holder milk production farms, (3) colonisation of dislodged city cattle, (4) artificial insemination of cattle, (5) cross-breeding of inferior milch stock, (6) cooperative milk union, (7) cooperative rural creameries (ghee) and (8) increased production of green foader and silage.

FISHERY IN INDIA

Main Classes of Fisheries—There are two main classes of fisheries in India—*Inland and Marine.* The inland fisheries are further divided into Fresh-water and Estuarine. The fresh water sources are rivers, canals, tanks, and ponds and those of estuarine is delta area where rivers meet the sea or the back water areas where sea runs into land; Marine fishery is divided into—foreshore, offshore and deep sea fisheries.

There are great possibilities for fish development in our country. We have 3,200 miles of coast line, but we have touched a part of narrow strip 5 to 10 miles only within sea, whereas, if equipped properly, we could reach out to greater depths and distances, at least to the 100 fathom line. At has been estimated that in India we have been able to tap only 5 to 6 per cent of the entire fishable marine area. We have, however vast resources inside our land borders. The inland fisheries, rivers, canals, irrigation channels, lakes, tanks, ponds and similar enclosed waters are scattered throughout the country. Artificial ponds can be constructed for fish culture.

The consumption of fresh sea fish is limited owing to an inadequate and uneconomic refrigeration. Approximately 60 per cent. of sea fish reaches the consumer as dried and salted. There are no suitable methods of preservation and dehydration of fish in India.

The annual production of fish in India is about 17 million maunds of a total value of Rs. 105 million. Fresh water sources at present produce about one-third of the total fish production in India, thte sea water sources producing the remaining two-thirds.

There is practically no imports of raw fish into India. Considerable quantities of dried and canned fish and fish by-products such as cod liver oil and manures valued at Rs. 16 lakhs per annum are imported. Appreciable quantities of sun-dried, salted and smoked fish are consumed in the country. The method of preservation by sun-drying is popular in Bengal, Travancore and Bombay. Only thin varieties of fish should be sun-dried. Over 65 p.c. of the production of salted or cured fish is concentrated in Madras which has the largest number of fish curing yards. There is also great possibility in India of the production of medicinal oil from shark livers and oily fish.

Development of Fisheries Research—It is proposed to have a Central Fisheries Institute which will have four main stations (1) a station for studying fish technology, methods of treatment, preservation, utilisation of bye-products, etc. It is proposed to locate this in Bombay. (2) a station for the study of inland fisheries with a sub-station or floating laboratory attached to it for estuarine work. This will be located in Bengal. (3) The other two stations will be for marine fisheries, one in the east coast of Mandapam and the other on the west coast of India. (4) In addition to the four main stations proposed, a chain of subsidiary biological stations is considered to be necessary all along the extensive coast line.

Varieties of Fish—Calcutta gets its famous salt water fish from salt-water lakes near the city and Sunderbans such as *Mango fish, Hilsa fish, Bhetki*. *Hilsa* fish is also available plentifully in river Padma. The important tank fish of Bengal is *Rohi, Katla and Mrigal*. Bombay is famous for its *Bombay Ducks, Pomfrets, Srole* and *Sea perches*. In Chilka lake of Orissa, we get *Mullets, Bhetki, Pomfrets, Mackarel, Indian Salmon* etc. South India has an aboundant supply of sea-fish like *Pomfret, Srole, Sardine*, etc. *Mashcers* (large head) are the large scaled barbles of India and are most prized game or sporting fish of the country. Good specimens are found in the lakes of the Kumaun hills.

Fish Products—Besides articles of food, the following are fish products—manures; oils from the livers of some species, such as shark-liver oil which is now prepared in Madras; scales of certain fishes are used for making various things; fins are used for the production of glues, bones for glues and manuring purposes.

Fish Centres—Bengal is self-sufficient regarding fish. More than 80 p.c. of the population of both Bengals eat fish. Fresh water fish production of Bengal is more than 50 per cent of the total fresh water production of Indian sub-continent and in money value it is almost 60 per cent of the grand total. Bombay supply comes from tanks, ponds, rivers. Upper India depends for its fish supply on rivers. Bombay almost entirely gets its fish from the sea. Bombay has excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fairweather season lasting for about seven months. Orissa has a great fishing ground—its east coast line, Chilka Lake and large areas of inland

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water yield all types of fish. Chilka Lakes yields extremely tastey fish and prawns.

Madras is undoubtedly the most important fishing trade centre of India and a large trade is carried on in sun-dried, salted and pickled fish. Important fish trade centres are Calicut, Chingleput, Nellore, Nagapatam, Cochin and Travancore.

Fish-Eating Population—Fish is eaten by nearly 50 per cent of the population. It is an important active food in Bengal, Orissa, Gujrat and non-Brahmin population of Madras, but owing to the very limited supplies not more than a *'chhatak'* of fish per head per week is available. The minimum needs of the fish-eating population is 2 'chataks' at an average a day per person.

A comparison—Japan produces 111 lbs. per head per annum, Canada 109 lbs. per head per annum, Denmark 63 lbs., U. K. 49 lbs., U. S. A. 35 lbs., U. S. S. R. 18 lbs. and India together with Iran and Burma only 5 lbs.

Marketing and Improvement—Following are recommendations made at the Government of India Fisheries Conference held in 1948—

(1) Government should encourage marketing by organising co-operative societies of fishermen to stop disparity of prices received by the fishermen and those paid by the consumers.

(2) Provincial Governments should, as an experimental measure, explore the possibilities of establishing large and uptodate wholesale markets under their control in large cities like Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

(3) In view of fish being a highly perishable commodity, government should encourage private enterprise to put up cold storage plants for fish preservation, should encourage the use of insulated or refrigerated road van and Central Government should provide refrigerated rail vans wherever necessary.

(4) Refrigeration experts of Central Government should help provincial and State Governments in preparing suitable schemes for cold storage of fish (5) for quick transport of fish Government should popularise fast motor carrier boats, encourage motor vans (6) high priorities for the transport of fish and fish fry by fast trains at concessional rates should be given.

Post War Plan—Fisheries are still largely undeveloped. The primary factors in increasing fish supplies will be scientific, research, instruction in modern methods and the provision of better equipment and craft. The government *Post War Plan* proposes the establishment of a Central Institute with one section for Marine and another section for inland fisheries and for simultaneous development of the Fisheries Department in the provinces. The Central Institute shall provide facilities for the training of personnel and conduct research and experimental work, while provinces should prepare and initiate small scale projects, such as fish breeding in ponds and canals, the provision for cold storage facilities, improved and speedy transportation, marketing, the encouragement of dehydration, canning and development of fish oil industry.

IRRIGATION IN INDIA

Usefulness and Greatness of Indian Irrigation—Irrigation system in India is the largest in the world. Importance of Irrigation in India can easily be estimated when it is realised that agriculture maintains about nine-tenths of population in India and rainfall is unevenly distributed, precarious and uncertain in several parts of the country.

India is fortunate in her immense resources in water and her wide-spread waterways. But at present the bulk of this water runs in uncontrolled floods, doing damage to life and property. Roughly 6% of the available water-wealth in India's rivers is being utilized, the balance of damage to life and property through uncontrolled floods. Hence there is 94% running to waste and in its progress to the sea does incalculable immense scope for utilizing this water for irrigation purposes.

Irrigation in India was not introduced by the British. It had been practised in India from time immemorial. The grand Anicut across Coleroon river in Tanjore was built by the Hindu Chola Kings and the Mughal Emperors of Delhi. And within recent years development in this direction is almost phenomenal.

Partition and Irrigation—The partition of India into Indian Union and Pakistan has deprived India some of the biggest schemes of the world. The major irrigation works in Sind and Punjab have gone to Pakistan. Out of 14 million acres irrigated in the pre-partition Punjab, hardly 3 millions lie in East Punjab. Thus out of total area of 23 million acres in the East Punjab, only 3 million acres are irrigated.

Multi-purpose Schemes—When India was partitioned, much of the magnificent irrigation works of the country fell in Pakistan territory. Still India is well-placed in respect of overall water resources and power potential. It is increasingly being realised that while a project conceived for a single purpose like irrigation or flood control might not be an economic proposition, it might become a financially feasible and productive scheme if it included other purposes like power generation, navigation etc. That constitutes the rationale of a multipurpose scheme.

The Central Government have already embarked on enterprises like large river-valley developments which are multipurpose projects of a great magnitude involving extensive generation of hydro-electric power and irrigation on a vast scale. Projects like Damodar Valley Scheme, the Kosi Reservoir, the Hirakund Dam etc. are in a class by themselves and can stand comparison with any of the major schemes in America or elsewhere.

Ministry of Works, Mines and Powers—This new ministry has been formed to take up Irrigation, Mines, Hydroelectric and all other electric schemes.

Government Departments—The Dominion of India has two central bodies for the work of Irrigation—(1) *Central Board of Irrigation with a* Research Committee and a Bureau of Information and (2) *Central Waterways, Irrigation and Navigation Commission.* The Central Waterways, Irrigation and Navigation Commission is a central fact-finding planning and coordinating organisation to advise Central, Provincial and State Governments in regard to waterways, irrigation and navigation problems throughout the country. There is also an *Indian Waterways Experiment*

Station at Khadakvasla near Poona to study behaviour of rivers, protection of bridges, etc.

Main types of Irrigation in India (1) *Lift or well-irrigation*—About one quarter of the total irrigated areas of India are well-irrigated. Water is raised from the wells by manual labour, animal or mechanical power. It is extensively used in United Provinces, East Punjab, Madras, Bombay, Rajputana etc.

(2) *Tank Irrigation*—are reservoirs for collecting water by means of dams or tanks in which rain-water is collected and stored. It is very highly developed in Madras, Central India, Hyderabad.

(3) *Canal Irrigation*—This is the most important type of irrigation. Canals draw their waters from rivers or from artificial storage. They are mostly seen in Northern India. The river canals are of three classes —*Inundation canals, Perennial canals* and *Storage Canals*. Inundation canals obtain water when the river rises about a certain level. The Perennial canals draw the water from rivers which have flow of water throughout the year. Storage canals are constructed in the Deccan and Central Provinces. Rivers dry up during the hot season and therefore, artificial storage is necessary. Rain water is stored across a valley by building a dam and then distributed to the neighbouring lands by means of canals.

(4) *Tube-well Irrigation*—It is a recent development where ground water reservoirs lying to a depth varying from 15′ to 45′ is utilised for irrigating areas, such as Ganga Tube-wells Scheme in U.P.

The irrigation is again divided in two classes by Government—

(1) *Productive;* the capital for the construction and extension of this class is provided out of borrowed money or by appropriation from Famine Insurance grant and which is expected to yield within ten years of their completion sufficient revenue to pay their working expenses as well as the interest on the capital expended on their construction.

(2) *Protective*—These are constructed as protection against famine and the cost of construction is provided out of current revenues or by appropriation from famine insurance grant.

Irrigation Statistics of Br. India

	Capital outlay (Rs. lakh)	*Area under irrigation (000 acres)*	*Area irrigated as percentage of net area shown*
1928-29	112,32	48,253	23
1932-33	139,58	48,453	23
1936-37	147,06	50,158	23
1938-39	152,80	53,662	..
1939-40	153,89	54,945	..
1940-41	144,83	55,789	26
1941-42	145,09	56,714	27

CANALS AND DAMS OF INDIA

Canal System—Indian canal system is by far the largest in the world. Irrigation canal systems are of two kinds., *inundation* canals and *perennial* canals. Inundation canals are those drawing supplies through cuts in the

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river bank. They only flow during floods, when the river level is high. Perennial canals have head weirs across the river at the starting point of the irrigation system which controls the river flow and directs the water supplies into the canal throughout the year. Both systems have been in use in India for a very long time. The *Grand Anicut* in South India which is estimated to date from the 2nd century A.D. and which irrigates 200,000 acres is of the later type. The Great Canal System of U.P. and Punjab are of this type.

Dams—All the big dams of Indian sub-continent have gone to Pakistan. The main dams now remaining are the following—the *Wilson Dam* at Bhandaradera in Bombay Presidency which towers up for 270 ft. and is one of the highest dams in the world. For length however, pride of place must be given to the *Nizamsagar Dam* in Hyderabad State and *Mettur Dam* in Madras is the biggest in India and one of the biggest in the world.

For its novelty the *Periyar dam* in Madras Presidency is worthy of mention. Built under great difficulty in a narrow gorge 3,000 ft. up in the Western Ghats, it has diverted a river eastward from the Indian Ocean into the Bay of Bengal by means of a tunnel over a mile long or about five times the length of London Bridge, bored through solid rock. Equally remarkable are head works of Cauvery Delta system comprising four weirs of 2¼ miles of embankment.

Following are the main canals and dams of India:—

PUNJAB

1. *Western Jamna Canal* irrigates the districts of Rohtak and Hissar, States of Patiala and Jhind.
2. *Sirhind Canal* takes water from Sutlej River and irrigates Ludhiana, Ferozpur, Hissar and Nabha.
3. *Upper Bari-Doab Canal* takes from Ravi River and irrigates Gurdaspur, Amritsar and Lahore.
4. *Lower Chenab Canal* is the greatest canal in India and takes water from Chenab and irrigates Lyallpur.
5. *Lower Jhelum Canal*—irrigates lands in the North-west Punjab.
6. *Upper Chenab*—Lower Bari-Doab Canal.
7. *Thal Project*—opened in Jan. 1947 which irrigates the area lying between the Indus in the west and Jhelum and Chenab rivers in the east by the waters of the Indus.

UNITED PROVINCES

1. *Upper Ganges Canal*—has its head water at Hardwar and supplies water to Agra Canal and Lower Ganges Canal. It is the most important canal in U. P.
2. *Agra Canal* is taken off from Jumna near Delhi.
3. *Lower Ganges Canal* is taken off Narora in the District of Bulandshahr.
4. *Sarda Canal* takes off from Sarda river on the borders of Nepal in the north of U. P. and irrigates Rohilkhand and Western parts of Oudh. It commands some 7 million acres in Oudh and Rohilkhand. It has 4,177 miles of main canal distributaries and is the longest canal in the

world. In addition some 1,500 miles of drainage channels were constructed to carry off rain-water quickly. Cost of the scheme was £7,500,000.

5. *Eastern Jamna Canal* irrigates north-eastern parts of the province. The canal takes the water from Jumna near Faizabad.

MADRAS

Madras—Cauvery-Mattur Project, Godavari Delta System, Kistna Delta System, Cauvery Delta System, Pennar River Canals System, Periyar System, Chicacole Minor River System, Lower Coleroon Anicut System, Tungavadra Project has been inaugurated in 1945.

Mattur Dam—on the Cauvery river inaugurated in 1934. This irrigation system is the biggest in the British Empire and the largest single block masonry reservoir in the world with a storage capacity of 93,500 million cubic feet.

MULTI-PURPOSE PROJECTS

It is learnt that construction work on seven multi-purpose development projects has been simultaneously taken in hand and 12 other projects are under investigation.

(1) *Thungabhadra Dam Project* (Madras)): The masonry wall of the Differ Dam is under construction. Excavation for foundation of the dam is in progress but concreting cannot start as the line has to come from Hyderabad. The work is for the present at a standstill. Excavation of canals and the masonry works on them are in progress. Construction of quarters is nearly complete and railway station and quarters are under construction.

(2) *Damodar Valley Development Scheme* (Damodar Valley Corporation); Preliminary investigations have been completed. Further investigations are being carried out and following the setting up on July 7, 1948 of the Corporation, tenders are being invited for the construction of the dams.

(3) *The Mahanadi Valley Scheme* (Orissa): It consists of 3 dams out of which one, *viz.,* Hirakund Dam is under construction while the other two are under preliminary investigation. Foundation concrete was laid of the Hirakund Dam by the Prime Minister on April 12, 1948. Work of road and rail communications has already started and the necessary construction machinery and plant are being procured.

(4) *Bhakra Dam Project* (East Punjab): Road and railway communications have been established and staff quarters mostly completed. Work on the pilot headings for the diversion tunnels has also commenced. Requisite plant and machinery are being obtained and construction on Nangal barrage and canals has well advanced.

(5) *Rihand Dam Project* (U. P.): Project estimate has been sanctioned and contract for detailed design has been finalised. Access roads and buildings are under construction.

(6) *Mor Reservoir Project* (West Bengal and Bihar): The Government of Bihar have agreed in principle to the construction of this dam, but the details about resettlement of the displaced population are still being settled. Design of barrage has nearly been completed. Building materials

are being collected and machinery being arranged. Earth work on afflux bunds and canals is in progress.

(7) *Bhadra Dam Project* (Mysore): Temporary quarters and communications have been completed. Site clearance and excavation of foundations have started.

SCHEMES UNDER INVESTIGATION

The following schemes are under investigation:

(1) *Kosi Dam Project* (Nepal and Bihar): Geological investigations are in progress. The barrage site has been selected. Field surveys are in progress. Hydrological and meteorological data are being collected and the lay out and design are in progress. Geological studies indicate that a high dam at this site is feasible. The best world advice is being obtained in respect of design features against earthquake. Proposals are under consideration for the construction of a forty-mile access railway line to speed up work on the barrage and dam. The investigations and preliminary arrangements for construction are being given top priority.

(2) *Ramapadasagar Reservoir Project* (Madras): Detailed investigations are nearing completion. Designs have been prepared in the first stage and estimates are being sent up for sanction.

(3) *Tapti Valley Scheme* (Bombay): As regards Utkal Dam and Kakarpar Barrage, hydrological and meteorological observations are in progress. Surveys for right bank and left bank canals and barrage site are nearly complete. It is the intention to take up construction work on the barrage at a very early date after the surveys have been examined in detail. Investigations on Girna Project are nearing completion.

(4) *Narbadda Valley Scheme* (Bombay and C. P.): Hydrological studies are in progress. Preliminary surveys of these priority projects, *viz.*, Bargi, Tawa and Punasa are under way. Tools and plants for the surveys and foundation explorations are on order.

(5) *Mahanadi Valley Scheme* (Orissa): Geological investigations regarding Tikarpara Dam project are in progress. Temporary buildings for the staff are nearing completion. Earthen road on the left bank has been completed. Gauge, discharge, silt and meteorological observations are being continued. Geological investigations on Naraj Dam Project under this scheme are also in progress. All temporary buildings have been completed. Gauge, discharge and silt observations are being continued.

(6) *Sabarmathi Dam Project* (Bombay and Baroda State): Preliminary report has been prepared and estimate for detailed investigations is awaiting sanction.

(7) *Brahmaputra Valley Scheme* (Assam): Preliminary investigations on Dhihang project and Manas Project have been started. Recruitment of staff for survey work is under way.

(8) *Nayar Dam Project* (U. P.): Geological investigations have been completed. Final recommendations are awaited.

(9) *Ramganga Dam Project* (U. P.): Surveys and geological explorations are in hand. Hydrological data are being collected.

(10) *Wainganga Project* (C. P.): Dam site is under investigation. Preliminary geological examination has been completed.

(11) *Chambal Valley Scheme* (Madhyabharat and Rajasthan): Three separate schemes for dams on the Chambal were under investigation by Indore, Mewar and Kotah States. As the States have merged into Unions a Technical Board has been formed to further the investigations for the three dams and a pick-up weir for irrigation.

(12) *Krishna-Pennar Project* (Madras): Preliminary work is in progress.

(13) *Ganga Barrage Project*—Besides bringing under plough vast tracts of uncultivated tracts in north-east India, will provide a direct and all-season navigation route between Calcutta and Ganga in the Indian Dominion.

INDIA'S HYDRO-ELECTRIC POWER

Potentialities of Hydro-electric Power in India—Cheap power is needed for domestic purpose, for the manufacture of fertilisers, for agriculture, and for industry. It is needed further to conserve India's limited resources in high-grade, particularly metallurgical coal, vast quantities of which at present being used up in generating power for industry, locomotive power for railways and as domestic fuel. Coal as a means of generating power is exhaustible, but water is inexhaustible. It's use for power generation would release coal for use of other purposes of national importance.

A river tamed is a source of power and wealth. It yields electricity to light cities, work factories, and run trains. Its water can be made to irrigate barren fields, prevent floods and ease navigation for inland steamers. In a country uneasy over the exhaustibility of its coal supplies, rivers are the key to an industrial centre.

On a rough calculation, the mean annual supply of water in our rivers appears to be of the order of 2·3 million c.ft. per second. The mean annual consumption of water for agricultural purposes derived from canals has been roughly figured out as 133,000 c.ft. per second. Possibly another 30,000 c.ft. per second is utilised for irrigation of wells. This means that less only about 6 per cent of available water-wealth in our rivers is being utilised and the balance of 94 p.c. is running to waste in the sea and doing incalculable damage to life and property through uncontrolled floods, stagnating pools and malaria mosquitos.

India's industrial and agricultural developments depend on the use of cheap power. Coal is no doubt the main source of industrial power, but in region far away from the coal fields of Bengal and Bihar, the coal costs much and hence hydro-electric power is being rapidly developed in many parts of the country.

India now promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. Her potentialities for hydro-electric development is estimated at some 39 million horse-power out of the world total of 300 millions. Only about a half million horse-power has so far been harnessed. The biggest hydro electric undertakings are the three schemes developed and brought into operation by the Indian firm of Tata & Sons. These schemes have a continued normal capacity of 246,000 horse-power and provide electrical energy for the city of Bombay, Thana, Kalyan and

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greater Poona. The scheme has also been developed in Mysore, Kashmir, Madras, United Provinces, Punjab and Travancore.

The total installed capacity of hydro-electric works in India today is about 0·5 million kilowatts. This represents roughly 1·5% of the country's power potential. It has been estimated that the major hydro-electric projects now actually under execution or in advanced stages of planning will, when completed, and more than 14 million kilowatts of power to present meagre supply.

The first hydro-electric plant installed in India was a small municipal town lighting plant at Darjeeling, in 1897-98. The first plant installed in the U.S.A., it is believed, was in 1882 and in Canada in 1900. The combined capacity of hydro-electric installations throughout the world at the beginning of the present century was only about 150,000 kilowatts. Since then the race for hydro-electric development has started.

Canada, where the first hydro-electric installation was erected three years after the first plant went up in India, has today 7·7m kilowatts of installed capacity or more than 15 times that of India. The total capacity in the U.S.A. and Russia is 29 times and 45 times respectively of that in India. Even comparatively small countries like France, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden and Japan have each anything from five to ten times the installed capacity in India. New Zealand, with a total population of only 1m, has an installed capacity equal to that of India with her population of 330m. The per capita consumption of 1,660 kilowatts-hours in the U.S.A., 1,944 KWH Switzerland, 2,100 KWH in Sweden, 3090 KWH in Norway and 4,000 KWH in Canada compared with a paltry 9·2 KWH in India.

An unwholesome feature of the scanty progress made in India is that most of the existing installations have been planned to satisfy the demands of urban areas. This is best illustrated by the fact that Calcutta and Bombay, with a total population of one per cent of the whole country between them, consume 50% of the total electric energy produced in India, leaving the other 50% for the remaining 99% of the population. Except in a few villages in Madras and Mysore, the blessings of electricity are unknown to the common man in India.

When the hydro-electric projects now under construction or awaiting construction are completed, India's resources of developed waterpower will probably rank as the third largest in the world, next only to those of the U.S.A. and Russia.

Some idea of India's potential of hydro-electric power can be had when it is stated that the entire power now utilized on the railways in India can be generated from a single project like the Kosi. The railways consume about 7m tons of coal annually, or just one-third of the country's total consumption.

Before large blocks of power proposed to be created in India can be utilized in the service of the people, it will be necessary to establish in India factories for the manufacture of equipment and appliances for the utilisation of energy. The country will require by the hundreds of thousands articles like poles, wires, transformers, insulators, switchgears, motors, heaters, accumulators, pumps, household appliances, meters, etc., and it cannot depend upon imports for such large quantities of these articles.

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Three classes of Hydro-electric Power—The Hydro-electric Schemes in India are of three classes—(1) Hydro-electric power for large industrial and commercial towns, such as Bombay, (2) Hydro-electric power for irrigation works, such as works connected with Upper Ganges Canal, (3) Hydro-electric works in hill stations such as Shillong.

Government Researches & Schemes—*Research stations*—The research activity in India is steadily increasing. There are Punjab Irrigation Research Institute, Indian Waterways Experiment Station, Poona, the Bengal River Research Institute, the U.P., Madras and Bombay Research Stations. New stations are being set in Hyderabad and Mysore. Until as recently as 1945 the initiative for preparing water development schemes rested entirely with the provinces, and there was no central organization to encourage the study and planning of schemes on major rivers involving more than one political unit. By creating *Central Waterways Irrigation and Navigation Commission* and the *Central Technical Power Board,* the Central Government have satisfied a long felt want.

In 1944 *Central Technical Power Board* was set up by the Government of India for a period of five years in the first instance to serve as a body of Consulting Engineers. Its function is to act as a Central Government engineering planning agency to be available for Central, Provincial and State Governments for the preparation of multipurpose hydro-electric and thermal power schemes. It also furnishes economic studies and estimates costs and recommends the course of action necessary for implementing the various projects. It also prepares schemes to promote rural electrification projects. In discharging these functions, the Board acts purely as a Technical Advisory Body without any mandatory powers.

There is also *Electric Commissioner's Office* which though intimately associated with the above Board, is a separate organisation. It is a permanent government institution acting as a Central Bureau of Information on the development of electricity supply in this country. It also helps the industry to develop and secure its major requirements of heavy plant and equipment.

Bombay

In the Bombay Presidency Hydro-Electric System is entirely carried out by the Tata Hydro-Electric system. There are four companies associated in this enterprise, namely, the *Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co., Ltd.,* (established 1910), the *Andra Valley Power Supply Co., Ltd.,* (established 1916), the *Tata Power Co., Ltd.,* (established 1919), and the *United Power Ltd.,* (established 1937).

Harnessing waters of five lakes at Lonavla, Walwhan, Shirawta, Thokerwadi and Mulshi with their three generating stations at Khopoli, Bhivpuri and Bhira, the group have a combined capacity at present exceeding 250,000 horse-power. This power is carried over 275 miles of 100,000 volt overhead lines to Bombay and Poona and along 200 miles of high tensioned underground system in Bombay. The total capital invested in the project is Rs. 9,66,97,000. It supplies electricity to Bombay cotton mills, Bombay Tramways and Electric Company and to a lot of other industrial towns.

The Government of Bombay has established a special grid department for the following schemes (1) *North Gujarat Grid Scheme,* (2) *South*

Guzerat Grid Scheme, (3) Rural electrification and small town schemes passed on small Diesel Stations.

Madras

1. *Pykera Hydro-electric Scheme* developed in 1932 on the Pykera River in the Nilgiri district gives power to Coimbatore, Erode, Negapatam, Trichinopoly, Madura.

2. *Mettur Hydro-electric Scheme* below Mettur dam provides energy to Salem, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, North Arcot, Chitttor. It also provides water for irrigation. The dam is one of the largest in the world, 176 ft. high and can unpound a total of 93,500 million feet of water.

3. *Papanasam Hydro-thermal Electric System*—The scheme was sanctioned in 1938. The system covers all districts south of Madras. The scheme utilizes the fall of about 330 ft. in the passage of Thamberapani river in the Tinnevelly district.

4. *Hydro-electric* power on the Cauvery river in Mysore supplies power to Kolar Gold fields and also to Bangalore and other towns. The generating station is situated at Siva Samudram, 90 miles from Kolar Gold fields. This was inaugurated in 1902.

5. An important scheme of Travancore is *Pallivasal Hydro-electric* system completed in 1940. It extends up to Alwaye on the west and up to Kundara in the south.

6. *Jog Power Scheme*—Waters of Sharavati river have been harnessed at Jog or Gersoppa Falls in Mysore State for producing 120,000 kilowatts of electricity at an expenditure of Rs. 8·3 crores. Not only Mysore State but also Provinces of Madras and Bombay will be benefited by the scheme which is expected to be completed soon.

New Schemes—Madras Government have sanctioned Five Year programme of construction of following schemes and extensions—(1) Machkund Hydro-electric Scheme, (2) Nellore Thermal Scheme, (3) Madras Thermal Extension Scheme and inter-connection with Mettur Hydro, (4) Ceded Districts Scheme, (5) Moyar Scheme, (6) Pykara Hydro-electric Scheme extensions, (7) Madura Thermal Scheme.

Kashmir

Hydro-electric power at Baramulla, 14 miles from Srinagar from the waters of Jhelum provides energy to Srinagar. Other two schemes are *Musaffarabad hydro-electric Station* utilising a tributary of the Kishen Ganga river and the *Jammu hydro-electric installation.*

Punjab

Uhl River or *Mandi Scheme* (opened in 1933) supplies power to the East Punjab Railway and towns such as Amritsar, Ludhiana, etc. The Uhl river, a tributary of Beas has been harnessed in Mandi State at a distance of about 200 miles from Lahore. The Uhl river project serves at present an area of 46,000 sq. miles and a population of 15 lakhs.

Amritsar hydro-electric installations is located near Amritsar and ises the fall of 6-10 ft. in Bari Doab Canal of Ravi river which runs side of Lahore.

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U. P.

The main U. P. Hydro-electric works are *Ganges Canal Hydro-electric grid* which supplies power to 14 districts in the west of the Province and to Shahadara in Delhi and other towns.

Hyderabad (Deccan)

There are several Hydro-electric Schemes in this State, such as: *Tungabhadra Project* across the river Tungabhadra; *Davanoor Project;* across the river Manjira, a tributary of the Godavary; *Nizamsagar Project; Godavary-Kadam Project; Pudua Project,* across the river, Manair; *Penganga Project* on the boundary between Berar and Hyderabad; *Lower Kistna Project; Upper Kistna Project.*

Hyderabad State have decided to proceed at once with *Nizamsagar Project* for bringing hydro-electric power to Hyderabad city. An agreement has also been reached on the division of the waters of *Tungabhadra* river between Government of Mysore, Madras and Hyderabad which will enable Hyderabad State to generate hydro-electric power.

NOTABLE ENGINEERING SCHEMES OF INDIA

Mettur Dam on the Cauvery River—5,300 ft. long, 176 ft. high. It has a volume of 1,825,000 cubic ft. The water storage capacity is 93·500 million cubic ft.

Nizamsagar Dam—Second largest dam in India. It stretches across the river Manjira, a tributary of Godavari for two miles with a motorable road 14 ft. wide along the top. It is one of the largest gravity dams of the world.

Elevated Reservoir at Tallah, Calcutta—is considered as the biggest in the world. It has capacity of 9 million gallons. It consists of a steel tank 16 ft. deep, 321 ft. sq. supported on steel column. The height from the ground level to the top of the tank is 110 ft. It was constructed in 1905.

New Howrah Bridge—was opened on Feb. 28, 1943. It has 26,000 tons of steel. The cost of construction was Rs. 3,30,00,000. It is the third largest contilever span bridge in the world.

It has a steel superstructure of an overall length of 2,150 ft. supported on two piers at 1,500 ft. centres and with cantilever Shore arms 325 ft. in length.

The roadway, 71 ft. wide between curbs, and flanked on each side by a footpath 15 ft. wide.

Its main foundations are 181·5 ft. long and about 81 ft. wide, and its overall height above ground level is 300 ft.

Damodar Valley Multi-Purpose Scheme—Preliminary work on the Rs. 55 crore multi-purpose scheme for the development of the Damodar Valley is in progress. A series of reservoirs providing flood control, supply of water for irrigation and a system of hydro-electric and thermal power stations inter-connected by transmission lines—these are the main features of the multi-purpose project planned for Bengal and Bihar. Surveys are being made for the construction of eight dams and a barrage across Damodar River. First proposed Tilaiya Dam will irrigate over 30,000 acres of land in Hazaribagh District. Second on the list is Maithon Dam across Barakar river and 15 miles north-east of Asansol. The project expected to c Rs. 55 crores, will make Dam basin one of the richest areas in India. It is being constructed with a four-fold purpose—(1) prevention of floods and soil erosion, (2) irrigation, (3) power, (4) navigability. All the schemes together, if executed, will irrigate 800,000 acres. The Damodar purpose development scheme is multi-purpose development scheme is designed to benefit 5,00,000 people in the valley and another 2,500,000 in neighbouring towns and cities including Calcutta.

Hirakund Dam—This dam to be erected is on Mahanadi River, Orissa, the foundation-stone of which has been laid. The Scheme will cost Rs. 16 crores, irrigate about 800,000 acres, produce, 3,000,000 Kw. of electricity. Its water will irrigate more than a million acres, ease the flood problem in the coastal regions and open up the interior to shipping.

Kosi Dam—will be erected on the Kosi River in which Bihar and Nepal are interested. The projected Kosi Dam will be the highest in the world. It will irrigate about three million acres in Nepal and Bihar, generate 1·8 million kilowatts of electricity, produce some Rs. 5 crores worth extra foodstaffs and would involve building a dam 850 ft. high above bed rock, highest in the world and an erection of a power station of more than 1·8 million kwt. capacity.

PUBLIC HEALTH & HYGIENE

Development of Public Health Administration—The Royal Commission of 1859 appointed to enquire into the conditions of health of the army in India, recommended measures not only for the army but also for civil population. In accordance with its suggestion, Commissions of Public Health were established in the provinces of Madras, Bombay and Bengal. In 1864 certain administrative posts were however created at the Centre and in the Provinces. The officers concerned were designated sanitary commissioners. The report of the Plague Commission in 1904 recommended the strengthening of public health service and for the establishment of laboratories for research and for preparation of vaccines and sera. This resulted in the creation of a Medical Research Department under central government, the establishment of Indian Research Fund Association and annual grants to the provinces.

The Government of India Act of 1919 decentralised health administration by transferring it to provincial governments except the control of research and under the Government of India Act of 1935 distribution of health functions between the Centre and Provinces were further carried out.

The public health is now a provincial subject. There is a *Director of Public Health* in each Province who carries on the preventive functions in connection with diseases, and epidemics. The actual task of cure and medical relief is organised under the control of *Surgeon-General* in the three Presidencies and *Inspector-General* for Civil Hospitals in other Provinces. In each district there is a hospital under a Civil Surgeon.

There is a *Director-General* and a *Public Health Commissioner* for all India. The Director-General advises government on all questions of medical nature. The Public Health Commissioner is the adviser to the vernment on all public health matters, issuing of vital statistical returns.

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The Central Government also maintains a *Central Advisory Board of Public Health.* It generally acts in an advisory capacity. Certain all-India institutions are also maintained by central government, such as All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, the Malaria Institute etc.

Ministry of Health—With the independence of India, a Ministry of Health has been established at the Centre. This ministry is responsible for the health of the Centrally Administered Areas and in addition, it is the guiding and directing authority which co-ordinates the activities of Provincial and State Health Departments.

Medical Education—The medical colleges were first opened in Madras and Calcutta in 1835 and recognised by the Royal College of Surgeons in 1845. Since then there has been gradual progress of medical education in India. Practically all medical colleges offer a Doctorate of Medicine, Master of Surgery, etc. Several of the colleges are offering D.P.H. or equivalent. There is also a special provision for military medical students of the Indian Medical Department.

Indian Medical Association—This is an all-India organization of medical practitioners of India founded in 1928-29 for the purpose of looking after the interest of medical education, public health and the medical profession in India.

Central Advisory Board of Health—was started in 1937, in which all provincial governments are associated. It provides a forum for the purpose of discussing and formulating of public health policy and also to ensure co-operation between the Centre and the provinces and between province and province.

Medical Council of India—was constituted in 1933 along the lines of General Medical Council of Great Britain. The Council tries to maintain uniform minimum standard of university medical qualifications for India proper and tries to arrange for reciprocal recognition in India proper of approved qualifications but it has no disciplinary power.

Health Publicity Bureau—has been established according to the Bhore Committee's recommendations with a view to disseminating useful information on health in a popular way to make the people health-minded.

Drugs Technical Advisory Board—under the Drugs Act of 1942, the Central Government constituted the Drugs Technical Advisory Board in 1942. Its functions are the advise the Central and Provincial Governments on technical matters arising out of the administration of the Act.

Indian Research Fund Association—The Association is subsidised by the Government of India and was founded in the year 1911 for the purpose of conducting research in medicine and allied subjects. It is managed by a Governing Body whose members are appointed by the Government of India. The research conducted by the Association covers a wide field such as malaria, cholera, leprosy, filariasis, nutrition, industrial health, maternity and child welfare clinical research etc. The Association has a number of Advisory Committees and grants annually 15 fellowships for research work, both medical and non-medical. The fellowship carries a stipend of Rs. 250 per month tenable for two years.

Provincial Medical Councils—began to function from 1912 when the first Provincial Medical Council was started in Bombay. It is now functioning in all the provinces. The Provincial Councils keep register o qualified practitioners and supervise medical education and insp examinations and exercise disciplinary powers over medical practitioners, and also advise local governments in regard to recognition of various medical qualifications.

Voluntary Organisations—The following are the important voluntary organisations associated with local activities—(1) *Indian Red Cross Society,* (2) *St. John's Ambulance Association,* (3) *British Empire Leprosy Relief Association,* (4) *Mission of Lepers,* (5) *Association for the Prevention of Blindness, Bengal,* (6) *Tuberculosis Association of India,* (7) *International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation in India.*

Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign—In 1937 a movement was started against Tuberculosis which was assuming an alarming proportion every year. A sum of Rs. 76 lakhs were collected and Tuberculosis Association of India was formed to which all provincial associations are affiliated. Many sanatoria have been established throughout India.

Major Diseases of India—The major preventible diseases of India are small-pox, typhoid, dysentery, cholera, and malaria. Malaria is the largest public health problem in India. Deaths from this disease number about a million and the number of cases is about 100 million per year.

Plague first appeared in India at Bombay in 1896 and within a short time the disease spread throughout the country. But there has been considerable diminution within the last decade.

Doctor & Nurses in India—There are in all some 50,000 doctors spread over India. This gives a doctor population ratio of one doctor to 8,000 of population. In United Kingdom the ratio is slightly under 1 to 1,000 and in U. S. A. 1 to 750 to 800 of population. There are approximately 7,000 trained nurses in India, with a nurse population ratio of 1 to 56,000. In United Kingdom, the ratio is 1 nurse to 300 of population and in U. S. A. it is higher. There are approximately 5,000 trained midwives in India bearing a midwife population ratio of 1 to 80,000 or 1 midwife to 316 sq. miles on a basis of 1 midwife per 100 births where 100,000 are required.

Ratio of Hospitals—It is estimated that there are actually in existence between 73,000 to 74,000 hospital beds of all kinds in India or a ratio of 0·24 beds per 1,000 of population. It is however estimated that in order to provide satisfactory medical service, 7 hospital beds per 1,000 of population are required which would mean provision in the sub-continent of 2,800,000 beds.

Ten Years Health Plan—All-India Health Survey and Development Committee (Chairman, Sir Joseph Bhore) announced on Dec. 25, 1945 a comprehensive ten year national health plan for India costing Rs. 1,000 crores.

The scheme which takes the village as the nucleus for health organisation, provides for:—

1. Primary centres in every village with a dispensary containing 5 beds. Each group of villages with a population of 20,000 to be in charge of a trained doctor with a woman doctor as well as a staff of 34. Each group of three primary centres to have 30 bed hospital; in addition there will be 2 doctors, 2 public health nurses, and 4 midwives at the villagers' homes. Each primary unit to have a health committee consisting of village workers who will participate in local health measures.

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2. Secondary centres for a population of 50,000—60,000 with specialist staff and hospital and laboratory facilities of a higher type than those in the primary centres, whose work they will supervise.

3. District centres with a still higher type of health organisation, each district hospital having 200 beds and being able to provide medical and surgical aid of a high order and obviating the necessity for sending any patient for treatment outside the district.

Provincial Health Departments, while supervising in general the health services of each province, are to interfere as little as possible with primary and secondary organisations and to encourage them to act independently and display initiative in tackling their problems.

The estimated capital expenditure is Rs. 163 crores in first five years and Rs. 200 crores during second five years with a recurring annual expenditure of Rs. 40 crores during first half and Rs. 81 crores during second half of the programme.

Vitamins

Known vitamins are designated irrespectively:—A, B^1 (or B), B^2 (or G), C. D. E. & K. All vitamins are present in natural foodstaffs on which and not on commercial vitamin concentrates, man should ordinarily rely for their supply.

Vitamin 'A' is derived directly or indirectly from carotene pigments found in spinach, lettuce, cabbage, amarnath leaves, coriander leaves, drumstick leaves, celery leaves, and ripe fruits such as mangoes, papaya, tomatoes, oranges, carrots. It is also available in animal fats, in whole milk, curds, butter, unadulterated ghee, egg yolk, liver, fish and fish liver oil. *Functions*—promotes growth: necessary for reproduction; preserves structure and functions of epithelial tissues; maintains resistance to infection.

Effects of deficiency—failure of growth, interference with ovulation, night blindness, dry skin, 'toad'-skin and infections of eye, nasal passages, throat, lungs, stomach, intestines, skin, urinary, tract and (in females) reproductive tract.

Vitamin B^1 or B (Anti-beriberi Vitamin)—Principal sources—yeast, unmilled cereals, whole wheat, pulses, nuts, green vegetables, eggs, cheese, fish-roe, kidney, liver, home pounded rice or parboiled rice. *Functions*—is associated with the functioning of the nervous system.

Effects of deficiency—Lack of appetite, impaired growth or loss of weight, poor digestion, sluggish bowel action, cardiac disorder, fatigue, nervousness, neurities, disturbed lactation. Extreme lack causes beriberi.

Vitamin B^2 (or G)—belongs to the flavin group of pigments. *Principal sources*—yeast, milk, green vegetables, lean meat, liver, kidneys. *Functions*—Essential for growth and for healthy condition of the skin. *Effects of Deficiency*—failure or growth, sore tongue, and mouth, skin, lesions gastro-intestinal inflammations, eye diseases, pellagra.

Vitamin 'C'—Deficiency—Scurvy; *Principal sources*—fruit amla, green leafy vegetables, sprouted grains to be taken raw, fresh fruits.

Functions—helps to build strong bones and teeth, to keep teeth in good condition, to build strong walls of the blood vessels; assists in healing wounds.

Vitamin 'D'—Deficiency—rickets in infants and children and osteomalacia which means 'softening of bones' chiefly among women in child-bearing period; *Principal sources*—Best source is sun light, also whole milk, butter, ghee, egg yolk and fish liver oil.

Vitamin E'—Little is known about its value except that it is related to the reproductive functions. It is found in wheat germ, eggs, vegetable oils and green leaves.

Vitamin 'K'—was discovered by Prof. Dam of Copenhagen. This vitamin is of use in adding to the clotting power of blood and in anæmic conditions. Vitamin 'K' probably acts on some process in the liver and is reported to be useful in arresting dental decay.

Principal sources—occurs in green vegetables and milk and products.

Calories

Quantitative food requirements are usually estimated in terms of heat units—calories. A calorie is a certain amount of heat or energy.

A car gets its energy from petrol; the human body from food. Not all foods have the same value as energy-providers. The amount of energy a given food will supply depends on in calorific content. If we partake an excessive number of calories the surplus is stored as fat.

An expert commission of the League of Nations has drawn up the following statement about energy requirements—(*a*) An adult, male or female, living an ordinary everyday life in a temperate climate and not engaged in manual work is taken as the basis on which the needs of other age-groups are reckoned. An allowance of 2,400 calories net per day is considered adequate to meet the requirements of such an individual (*b*) The following supplements for muscular activity should be added to the basic requirements in (*a*) :—

Light work: Upto 75 calories per hour of work.
Moderate work: Upto 75-150 calories per hour of work.
Hard work: Upto 150-300 calories per hour of work.
Very hard work: Upto 300 calories and upwards per hour of work.

Scale of Average Calories Requirements: Indian Standard

	Calories		*Calories*
Adult male (over 14) ..	2,600	Child 8-9 years	1,600
Adult female over 14) ..	2,100	Child 6-7 years	1,300
Child 12-13 years ..	2,100	Child 4-5 years	1,000
Child 10-11 years ..	1,800		

Composition of a Balanced Diet in India

Balanced diet recommended by the Nutrition Advisory Committee of the Indian Research Fund Association.

	Oz. per day		*Oz. per day*
Cereals	14·0	Sugar	2·0
Pulses	3·0	Fat	2·0
Vegetables	10·0	Fish and meat	3·0
Fruits	3·0	Egg	1 Egg
Milk	10·0		

For a vegetarian diet the fish food should be replaced by an additional 4 oz. of milk.

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Percentage of Alcohol in Liquors

Rum	53·7	Port	23·0
Beer	4·0	Sherry	19·3
Vermouth	19·4	Claret	13·3
Brandy	53·4	Ale	7·4
Gin	51·6	Whisky	54·3
Champagne	12·6		

Birth & Death per 1000 in India

	Birth per mille	*Death per mille*		*Birth per mille*	*Death per mille*
1901-1910	38	34	1942	29	21
1911-1920	37	34	1943	26	23
1921-1930	35	26	1944	..	24·1
1930-1940	34	23	1945	27·3	21·5
1941	32	22			

Normal Pulse

Age	*Beats per minute*	*Age*	*Beats per minute*
New born infant	103 to 140	7th to 14th year	80 to 90
First year	115 to 130	In adult age	70 to 75
Second year	95 to 110	In old age	60 to 75
Third year	85 to 95		

High Blood Pressure

Ages	A	B	C	D
	mm.Hq.	mm.Hq.	mm.Hq.	mm.Hq.
15-20	105	120	135	150
21-30	108	123	140	155
31-40	110	126	144	155
41-50	115	130	148	160
51-60	120	136	150	160
61-65	120	136	150	160

The pressure is highest during contraction (systole) of the heart. The highest pressure is called systolic blood pressure. It is lowest during the time the heart is in relaxation (diastole). This lowest pressure is called the diastolic pressure. Column A is the lowest normal systolic pressure; column B is the healthy average systolic pressure; column C gives the highest normal systolic pressure; Persistent pressures above column D are dangerous.

Weight of Organs of the Body

	Grams	*Ounces*	*p.c. of body weight*
Brain	1,400	49	2·37
Heart	300	10	0·46
Lungs	1,175	41	2·0
Spleen	170	6	0·346
Liver	1,600	57	2·75
Kidneys	300	10·5	0·44
Adrenals	10	0·35	0·014
Muscles	30,000	1,050	43·09
Skeleton	11,000	400	15·35

Infectious Diseases

	Incubation time (days)	*Day on which rash appears*
Chicken pox	About 15	1st
Scarlet Fever	About 3	2nd
Small-pox	About 12	3rd
Measles	About 10	4th
Typhus	About 12	5th
Typhoid	About 14	2nd week
Diphtheria	About 6	none
Erysipelas	About 4	2nd
Pneumonia	not known	
Spotted Fever	not known	
Tuberculosis	Several weeks	

World Infant Mortality

(Per 1,000 living births under one year)

South Africa (1939)	49	Belgium (1940)	89	Poland (1938)	140
Canada (1940)	56	Denmark (1940)	50	Rumania (1940)	189
U.S.A. (1940)	46	Spain (1938)	119	England & Wales (1940)	55
Ceylon (1940)	149	France (1940)	91	Sweden (1940)	39
India (1938)	167	Ireland (1940)	65	Switzerland (1940)	39
Japan (1938)	144	Italy (1940)	104	Australia (1938)	83
Germany (1940)	63	Netherlands (1940)	39		

World Death Rate per 1,000

South Africa (1939)	9·4	Greece (1939)	13·0	Poland (1938)	13·8
Canada (1940)	9·7	Ireland (1940)	14·2	United Kingdom (1940)	13·9
U.S.A. (1940)	10·8	Belgium (1940)	16·1	Sweden (1940)	11·4
Ceylon (1940)	20·6	Denmark (1940)	10·4	Switzerland (1940)	12·1
India (1945)	21·5	Hungary (1940)	14·4	Australia (1940)	9·7
Japan (1938)	17·6	Italy (1940)	13·6	Yugoslavia (1939)	15·0
Germany (1940)	12·7	Norway (1940)	10·7		
France (1939)	15·3	Netherlands (1940)	9·9		

World Birth Rate per 1,000

South Africa (1939)	25·4	Poland (1938)	24·5	Ireland (1939)	19·1
Canada (1940)	21·4	Germany (1940)	20	Italy (1940)	23·4
U.S.A. (1940)	17·9	Spain (1938)	17·3	Norway (1939)	16·0
Egypt (1938)	43·4	Finland (1938)	21·0	Netherlands (1940)	20·8
India (1945)	27·3	Portugal (1939)	26·5	Sweden (1940)	15
Japan (1938)	27	Yugoslavia (1940)	25·9	Switzerland (1940)	15·2
France (1939)	14·6	United Kingdom (1940)	15	Australia (1940)	18
Greece (1939)	23·5	England (1939)	15·5		

Tuberculosis Death

(Per 100,000 population)

(From Indian Medical Gazette, Oct. 1941)

London	96	Kanpur	432	Bombay	140
Paris	177	Lucknow	419	Calcutta	230
Mexico	170	Madras	290		
New York	128				
Berlin	120				

Infant Mortality in Br. India per 1,000 live birth

	Infant mortality		*Infant mortality*
1930	178	1937	162
1931	179	1938	167
1932	169	1939	156
1933	171	1940	160
1934	187	1941	158
1935	164	1944	169·3
1936	162	1945	150·9

Public Health Statistics

	1925	1929	1933	1937	1939	1940	1941	1942
Hospitals & Dispensaries ..	3,753	4,439	4,869	5,285	5,650	5,885	..	..
Patients treated (000) ..	39,424	51,640	62,618	71,048	79,057	81,815	..	..
Birthrate *per mille.** ..	32	33	36	35	34	33	32	29
Deathrate *per mille** ..	24	24	23	22	22	22	22	21
Infant mortality *per 1000 live-births* ..	174	178	171	162	156	160	158	163
Expenditure on Public Health by Central & Prov. Govts. (Rs. lakhs)† ..	5,01	5,99	4,96	5,63	5,74	6,32	6,31	..
Mortality for Cholera, Small-Pox & Plague *per mille* ..	1·3	21·8	0·9	0·7	....	....	1·0	·9

Births and Deaths in British India

	Births	*Deaths*		*Births*	*Deaths*
1932 ..	9,054,506	5,905,666	1938 ..	9,398,011	6,685,120
1933 ..	9,678,876	6,096,878	1939 ..	9,346,145	6,165,234
1934 ..	9,288,897	6,856,244	1943 ..	7,774,586	7,108.757
1935 ..	9,299,021	6,331,576	1944 ..	7,677,343	7,242,993
1936 ..	9,566,379	6,111,358	1945 ..	8,374,463	6,608,716
1937 ..	9,388,457	6,112,375			

Income & Expenditure on Public Health

	Income	*Expenditure*		*Income*	*Expenditure*
1932 ..	3,76,66,729	3,77.02,062	1936 ..	3,65,77,018	3,62,26,831
1933 ..	3,83.05,442	3,81,68,584	1937 ..	3,72,92,737	3,77,66,178
1934 ..	3,87,77,600	3,82,53,633	1938 ..	3,87,40,381	3,89,48,617
1935 ..	3,57,23,642	3,51,18,086			

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*Based on mid-year estimated population.

†Inclusive of Burma up to 1933-34.

Laboratories Medical Researches, and Associations

Indian Research Fund Association (*1911*)—is the leading organisation in India concerned with medical research. It is supervised by Advisory Committees. These committees deal with malaria, cholera, plague, maternal mortality and nutrition. The Association approves an annual programme of research, sanctions grants-in-aid for research and in certain cases may constitute special enquiries.

Central Research Institute, Kasauli (*1906*)—Manufactures vaccin such as anti-typhoid, anti-cholera and anti-venom serum for Civil and Military requirements, also well known for its research on major epidemics and also endemic diseases. The Institute serves as a centre of reference for anti-rabic treatment.

All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta—Established in 1932 with the aid on an endowment from Rockefeller Foundation which provided the scheme with the present building and its initial equipment. The Government of India allow a grant of Rs. 3,00,000 per year. The object of the Institute—(1) the training of public health personnel, qualifying students for public health diploma and (2) pursuits of research on several aspects of public health including study of diseases like malaria, etc.

All India Medical Institute, Delhi—This institute is to be started at Delhi which will serve as a model training and research institution and it should provide best possible training for the teachers and research workers of the future.

Tuberculosis Institute, Delhi—Ministry of Health has decided to start a Tuberculosis Institute at Delhi providing a centre for tuberculosis research *Tuberculosis Association of India* with its branches in the Provinces and States is the premier organisation which is concerned with the coordination of voluntary effort in this field.

Central Drugs Laboroatory, Calcutta—The Biochemical Standardisation Laboratory, Calcutta was converted into Central Drugs Laboratory in 1947 to take up the registration of patent or proprietory medicines under Drugs Act and to analyse samples in case of disputes over standards of products sold or imported into the country.

School of Tropical Medicine Calcutta (*1922*)—The school and the Carmichael Hospital for Tropical Diseases which is primarily a research hospital attached to the school are of the status of a provincial institution under the Government of West Bengal, but actually both have an all India aspect. It has the following departments:—(1) Tropical Medicine. (2) Bacteriology and Pathology. (3) Protozoology. (4) Entomology. (5) Pharmacology. (6) Chemistry. (7) Anæmia and respiratory diseases department. (8) Helminthology. (9) Public Health Laboratory Practice.

Haffkine Institute, Bombay (*1900*)—The Institute acts as a centre for the manufacture of plague vaccine for the whole of India and centre for the manufacture of anti-rabic vaccine for Bombay Presidency.

King Institute of Preventive Medicine, Guindy, Madras (*1903-4*)—for manufacture of vaccines, therapeutic sera, vaccine lymph; Blood Bank etc., and also research work.

Pasteur Institute of India, Kasauli—Centre of Anti-rabic treatment.

Pasteur Institute of Southern India (*1907*) *Coonoor.*

King Edward VII Memorial Pasteur Institute and Medical Research Institute (*1907*), *Shillong.*

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Pasteur Institute, Calcutta—This institute is a part of School of Tropical Medicine.

Pasteur Institute, Bombay—This is a part of Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

All-India Malaria Institute of India, Delhi (1939)—carries mainly malaria research in India and co-ordinates to a large extent the anti-malarial operations conducted by Central and Provincial Governments.

Imperial Veterinary Research Institute, Mukteswar—Started in 1893. It is now a fully equipped research institute for veterinary research. It also manufactures protective sera and vaccines. It has a branch station at Izatnagar (Bareilly).

Nutrition Research Laboratories, Coonoor—conducts research on problem of nutrition and acts as advisory bureau on all questions of nutrition.

Sir Tata School of Social Service, Bombay—the only institution in India which provides facilities for the training of social workers in the fields of family and welfare, adult deliquency and industrial and labour problems.

Sir Dorabji Tata Trust—The Trust has established in 1940 Tata Memorial Hospital for cancer at a capital of Rs. 23 lakhs and maintained at an average annual cost of Rs. 4 lakhs. There is also Tata Graduate School of Social Work which trains young men and women from universities in social work. It is the first institution of its kind in India.

Medical Colleges

Medical College, Calcutta.
R. G. Kar Medical College, Cal.
Campbell Medical College, Calcutta.
National Medical Institute, Calcutta.
Lake Medical College, Calcutta.
Madras Medical College.
Stanley Medical College, Madras.
Vellore Medical College, Madras.
Agra Medical College, U.P.
Mahatma Gandhi Medical College, Lucknow.
Assam Medical College, Gauhati.
Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women, Delhi.
Seth G. S. Medl. College, Bombay.
Grant Medical College, Bombay.
Patna Medical College, Patna.
Swaiman Singh Medical College, Jaipur.
Glancey Medical College, Amritsar.
Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Medical College, Indore.
Armed Forces Medical College, Delhi.
Andhra Medical College, Vizagapatam.
Medical College, Guntur, Madras.
Medical College, Madura, Madras.

Nursing College

College of Nursing, New Delhi—the first of its in India. It prepares students for B.Sc. (Hons.) degree of the Delhi University.

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION

Introduction of English Education—The first proposal of founding a University in India was made by the Council of Education in Bengal in the year 1845, but was not accepted by the Board of Directors of the East India Company, who considered the scheme somewhat premature. The famous despatch of Sir Charles Wood in 1854, soon after the renewal of Charter of East India Company in the previous year, brought the question once more to the front. "Among many subjects of importance" proclaimed the epoch-making document, "none have stronger claim to our attention than that of education. It is one of our most sacred duties to the nation, to be the means, as far it lies, of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of useful knowledge and which India may under Providence derive for her connection with England." In accordance with this declared policy, foundations of university education was laid in the country.

The foundation of university education was laid in this country with the establishment of the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in the year 1857, the necessary legislation incorporating them having been passed respectively on January 24th, July 18th and September 15th of the year. The jurisdiction of the Calcutta University which at the beginning included practically all Northern India, was soon found to be unwieldy and it was therefore broken up by the establishment of two additional Universities, the University of the Punjab which was founded in 1882 and the University of Allahabad which followed five years later in 1887.

The landmark in the history of Indian Universities was the appointment by Lord Curzon of a University Commission in the year 1902. The recommendations of the Commission were mainly in the direction of reforms in the constitution of Universities. An enactment for amending the law relating to Universities in India came into effect on 1st September, 1904 and laid new responsibilities upon Universities as regards both their control of affiliated colleges and their own teaching functions. It also specified the provision of instruction as one of their duties and gave them the power of appointing professors and lecturers, of holding and managing endowments and of erecting, equipping and maintaining University libraries, laboratories and museums. Though the bulk of the teaching continued to be in the affiliated colleges, a certain amount of higher instruction now began to be concentrated under University management. Territorial limits were assigned to each University. A systematic inspection of colleges by the University was established.

Another important advancement was the Government of India's resolution in 1913 which pleaded for the establishment of additional university of teaching type. It reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort on secondary education: it recommended an increase in the salaries of teachers and an improvement in the amounts of grants in and insisted on the proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all scholars. It advocated a separate university for each leading province in India.

Another landmark in the University history is the *Calcutta University Commission* presided over by Sir Michael Sadler (1917-1919). One of the primary recommendations was that Universities should be relieved of their intermediate work, so that they may be able to concentrate attention on real University teaching and the advancement of higher learning. The Commission also advocated the establishment of unitary and residential Universities.

Universities with the attainment of freedom, the government of India have appointed an University Commission in 1948 with Sir Radha Krishnan as Chairman for thorough examination of university education prevailing in India with a view to improvement on modern lines.

The Government of India Act of 1919 altered the course of educational administration in India. Educational became a *transferred* subject under the charge of a minister in governors' provinces, though European education was kept as 'reserved' subject. The education was further decentralised by the Government of India Act of 1935.

Government of India have however retained under their immediate control all education in the Centrally Administered Areas and they also deal with matters concerning universities of Benares, Aligarh and Delhi.

Types of Universities—In India are as follows:—'*Affiliating University*', *i.e.,* a University which recognises external colleges offering instruction in its courses of studies: A '*Teaching University*' is one in which some or all of the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the University. A '*Unitary University*' is one usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by or under the control of the University.

Administration—Government of India have a Ministry of Education in charge of an Education Minister with an Educational Adviser and Secretary of the Education Ministry.

As regards Provinces, the education is entirely in the hands of provincial government. Directors of Public Instruction in all provinces are the permanent heads of the Department of Education. But higher education is controlled by the universities.

Post-War Educational Development—This scheme has been prepared by Sir John Sergent, the Educational Adviser to the Government of India. It seeks to introduce universal free and compulsory education for boys and girls between the ages of 6 to 14. The cost of the scheme would be Rs. 200 crores a year.

After the primary stage is over, all boys and girls will not be allowed to go on for further education to the high schools. Only those who are expected to profit from further instruction will be allowed to proceed. It is roughly calculated that one out of every 5 will join in the high school. The schools are to be maintained by public funds as far as possible. Similar restrictions would be imposed on the entry of the students to the college. The Intermediate course should be included in the high school course. The colleges would only teach degree courses extending over three years.

Lastly, a national youth movement should be started throughout the country. This movement should teach the youngmen to build up their physique and to serve their country. Employment Bureaus should also be established to find jobs for students after completion of their academic career.

The estimated cost of the scheme is about 313 crores per year of which the government is to contribute 277 crores.

Central Advisory Board of Education—which was abolished in 1923 as a measure of economy was revived by the Government of India in August, 1935. It consists of all Provincial Ministers of Education or their Directors of Public Instruction, Representatives of the Inter-University Board, the Legislative Assembly, the Council of State and Nominees of the Government of India. Its main functions are to serve as a clearing house of idea and to act as a distributing centre of educational information for India.

There is also a *Bureau of Education* under the control of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India for dealing specially with the collection and dissemination of literature relating to educational problems in the various provinces.

Ministry of Education—Since August, 1947, a separate Ministry of Education has been formed in the Centre under a Minister of Education who is advised by our Educational Adviser on all educational matters.

All-India Council for Technical Education—was set up by the Government of India on Dec. 2, 1945 to study India's needs for higher technical education. (1)) It will survey the present position of technical education in India. (2) Advise on areas where technical colleges are most needed. (3) Consider existing and related projects including the consideration of an All-India Technological College.

Inter-University Board—The need of co-operation in the work of Universities in India was expressed by the Calcutta University Commission. The Indian Universities Conference held at Simla in 1924, and passed a resolution unanimously recommending to the Universities that it was desirable that an Inter-University organisation should be established for (1) Bureau of Information, (2) Exchange of Professors, (3) co-ordination of University work. (4) Obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other Universities, (5) serving as appointments bureau for Indian Universities, etc.

Primary Education—At present there is no system of primary education in most parts of India, though the number of rural and urban primary schools is slowly increasing. Most of the primary schools are run by local boards and municipalities. From primary schools, students may pass to secondary schools which culminate in a Matriculation or school-leaving examination. In recent years eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education at their option within any part of their jurisdiction after obtaining Government sanction for the purpose.

NEW EDUCATIONAL SCHEMES

Medium of Instruction—The Government of India issued a Resolution on August 14, 1948 defining their policy regarding the medium of instruction in educational institutions.

The principle that a child should be instructed in the early stage of his education through the medium of the mother tongue has been accepted by the Government.

Unfortunately the application of this educationally sound principle in practice raises some difficulties. One question is what is to be considered as the mother tongue through which education has to be imparted. As is well known, in every region, province and state in India, a number of dialects are spoken. Children learn dialects at home, are they to be all adopted as media of education? Most of them are without literature and therefore without necessary pabulum to nourish education. There are however about a dozen languages, more or less developed, which possess literatures and which seem to be marked out to become such media. There is hardly a province in which besides a principal language there are not considerable number of inhabitants speaking other languages.

In Madras Province four principal languages are used—Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Kanarese. Similarly in Bombay Province there are Marathi, Gujrati and Kanarese. In Bihar and U. P. there are certain districts and cities where along with Hindi, Bengali is spoken by many. Central Provinces have large areas of Marathi and Hindi speaking inhabitants. East Punjab has two Languages—Hindi and Punjabi.

Conditions like these make it impossible for any state or province to adopt any single language as the medium of instruction. An attempt to adopt one language in a Province where groups of people speaking different languages reside and to impose it on all is bound to lead to discontent and bitterness. It will affect inter-provincial relations and set up vicious circles of retaliation. Provincialism will grow and Indian nationalism will suffer. There is little reason why any province in India should seek to deprive children inhabiting that province of their fundamental right to receive education through the medium of their mother tongue.

It is obvious that if a province has adopted any particular language as the language of administration, it will be the interest of those whose mother tongue is different, to learn it in order to claim participation in the life and privileges of the people of the Province.

The principle of teaching through the mother tongue is of general application but practical considerations suggest two limitations. In the first place the principle applies mainly to the first stage of education *i.e.*, the stage of compulsory primary education or to the group of children at the junior basic stage from the ages of 6 to 11. In the higher stages after junior basic, it will be necessary for pupils to learn the language of the province.

Secondly, the employment of mother tongue for the education of the children whose numbers are extremely small, will create administrative financial difficulties. Hence, it is desirable that a minimum number should be fixed for the use of their language.

Medium of Instruction in the Universities—The Government of India have requested the Universities and Provincial Governments to replace English as a medium of instruction at the University stage by gradual stages and to adopt in its place the language of the State or Province or region as the medium of instruction and examination.

The universities have also been asked to provide for a compulsory test in the federal language during their first degree course without prejudice to the result of the degree examination and for the teaching of the federal language to all students who wish to take it up as an optional subject. Regarding the federal language and script, the Government of India will await the decision of the Constituent Assembly.

The Government of India have requested the universities and Provincial Governments to take steps to see that during the transitional period, English—not as a literature but as a language—is continued as a compulsory subject in the higher courses.

New Educational Programmes—The Ministry of Education, Government of India has drawn up numerous schemes which are a blue-print of the new Educational edifice.

(1) *Adult Education Committee* of the Central Advisory Board of Education has worked out a detailed scheme of Social Education with the target of attaining 50 p.c. literacy within a period of three years.

(2) Second Committee has prepared the framework of Secondary Education in India.

(3) A Third Committee has dealt with the most controversial problem of the medium of instruction in universities.

(4) A Fourth Committee is working out the ways and means of financing educational development in India.

(5) Another Committee has recommended the appointment of a National Commission which will serve as a liaison agency between Unesco and the institutions concerned with the progress of Science, Education and Culture of India.

(6) Another Committee has been formed to formulate a scheme for the establishment of the *Central Institute of Psychology* to conduct research in selective methods and standardising tests of various types in the educational field.

(7) Another Committee has been formed to prepare a scheme for a *Central Training College of Physical Education* for which provision had been made in 1948-49 Budget.

(8) An Expert Committee has been formed to report on the advisibility of establishing a *National Central Library in India.*

(9) *Overseas Scholarship Committee* and *Scientific Man-power Committee* have been at work and have recommended to spend more money for the expansion of Indian institutions and for selected students to be sent abroad for training at Government's expense.

(10) The Central Advisory Board of Education had recommended that Government of India should appoint a *Council of Social Welfare* to co-ordinate the activities of social service organisations throughout the country and also to run an institute of social studies under its direct supervision. An *ad hoc* Committee has reported that a Council of Social Welfare with representatives of Central and Provincial Governments and existing Social Service organisations should be formed to advise the Government of India on all matters concerning Social Service.

(11) A Board of Editors with Dr. S. Radhakrishnan as Chairman has been appointed to prepare a *History of Philosophy* to reveal the value of India's contribution to the evolution of modern philosophy.

(12) *Cultural Trust*—Plans are being prepared for a Cultural Trust with three Academies, namely (*i*) Academy of Arts, (*ii*) Academy of Letters and Music, (iii) Academy of Dance and Drama.

(13) Steps are being taken to strengthen the Archaeological Survey of India and the extend the scope and activities of the National Archives.

(14) Provision has been made for the establishment of a National Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology.

(15) Budget provision of 1948-49 has made grants for the establishment of two Higher Technical Institutions near Calcutta and Bombay.

(16) A provision of Rs. 18 lakhs has been made for housing the Central Institute of Education in Delhi which is administered by the Centre. The Institute is meant to train teachers for schools as well as training institutions.

(17) The greatest task of the Ministry of Education is the planning to wipe out the illiteracy of 85 p.c. of the people of the country. The Sargent Plan required 40 years to achieve this object. The All India Educational Conference held in Jan. 1948 resolved that this period must be substantially reduced. The Conference also recommended that compulsory basic education be introduced for the age-group 6 to 11 in the first instance and it may be extended later on to children between 11 and 14 years of age.

(18) *Adult Education Scheme*—A Committee appointed by the Central Advisory Board of Education made the following recommendations—the

adult education programme will be one over a period of three years with the target of making literate at least half the population of the country. This programme of education will be directed and co-ordinated by a Board to be called the Board of Social Education. Provincial and State governments will be asked to prepare their schemes for the target of 50 p.c. literacy within three years and submit these to the Board. The Government of India will provide 50 p.c. of the cost.

(19) Committee on the medium of instruction at the university stage resolved that there should be a five-year period of transition during which period English would continue to be the medium of instruction and examination in the universities and that this period should be utilised for the introduction of the regional or state language of the area concerned.

Regarding the place of *Federal or National Language* in higher education, the Committee decided that a test in the Federal Language adopted in the Constituent Assembly will be obligatory for all students but the result of the test will have no effect on the academic career of the pupil.

Script—on the question of script of the Federal Language, the Committee decided that the script eventually adopted by the Constituent Assembly should be accepted by all the universities. So far as the regional languages are concerned, the Committee resolved that they should use either their own script or the federal script.

For the implementation of its decision on the medium of instruction, the Committee recommended the appointment of a Board of Philologists and Scientists to prepare within five years a common scientific terminology for all Indian languages making use of international terms as far as possible and in consultation with the provinces and universities.

Regarding the question of medium of examination for the Federal Public Services, the Committee resolved that the Federal Public Service Commission examinations should be conducted in the State or regional language of the candidate. But after qualifying, the candidate should be required to pass a test in the federal language.

(20) *University Grants Committee*—the scope of the university grants committee has been enlarged so as to keep the committee in touch with the working of the universities all round the year and co-ordinate its activities. The whole field of university education in the Indian Dominion is now within the scope of this new committee, whereas its predecessor looked after the three Central Universities only.

(21) *Higher Technical Studies*—The Government of India will establish within first quinquennium commencing from 1947, two of the four higher Technical Institutions recommended by Higher Technical Education Committee—one to be located at North Kurla near Bombay and the other at Hijli in West Bengal.

(22) Government have also accepted the recommendation of the All-India Council for Technical Education suggesting the sanction of grants amounting to Rs. 1·5 crores of capital expenditure and Rs. 30 lakhs of recurring expenditure to some higher technical institutions in the country with a view to their improvement and expansion.

(23) Ministry of Education, Government of India have appointed a Committee to formulate a scheme for the establishment of *Central Institute of Psychology* in Delhi for conducting research in selective methods and standardizing tests of various types in the educational field.

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All-India Expenditure on Education

	Rs.		Rs.
1935-36	25,71,06,470	1940-41	29,84,03,205
1936-37	26,40,17,864	1941-42	30,85,79,543
1937-38	26,98,64,484	1942-43	51,61,42,080
1938-39	27,81,99,492	1943-44	33,21,33,000
1939-40	29,08,76,321	1944-45	51,61,42,080

No. of Educational Institutions

1920-21	180,380	1938-39	230,526
1924-25	203,232	1939-40	235,489
1928-29	232,429	1940-41	232,766
1932-33	229,771	1941-42	228,053
1936-37	227,940	1942-43	219,342
		1944-45	209,548

Number of Students

(In all institutions)

	men	*women*		*men*	*women*
1943-44 ..	40,36,743	10,10,074	1944-45 ..	1,23,54,775	36,01,130

Presses, Newpapers & Periodicals

	Presses	*Newspapers*	*Periodicals*	*Books (English)*	*Books (Indian)*
1920-21 ..	3,583	955	2,197	1,676	9,815
1924-25 ..	4,994	1,342	3,018	2,283	14,591
1928-29 ..	5,729	1,642	2,781	2,546	14,348
1932-33 ..	6,410	1,594	2,695	2,691	13,401
1936-37 ..	7,872	2,123	3,046	2,556	14,629
1938-39 ..	8,467	2,752	3,301	3,298	14,137
1939-40 ..	8,548	2,872	3,113	3,442	14,820
1940-41 ..	8,758	2,609	2,880	2,841	14,117

All-India Cost per Pupil

	Rs. A. P.		Rs. A. P.
1934-35	20 11 0	1938-39	20 0 0
1935-36	20 13 4	1939-40	19 12 6
1936-37	24 14 2	1940-41	19 10 6

Museums in India

Indian Museum, Calcutta.
Patna Museum, Patna.
Prov. Museum, Lucknow.
Archæological Museum, Sarnath.
Curzon Museum, Mathura.
Fort Museum, Delhi.
Jaipur Museum, Jaipur.
Udaipur Museum, Udaipur.
State Museum, Baroda.
Rajputana Museum, Ajmere.
State Museum, Hyderabad.
Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay.
Central Museum, Nagpur.
Govt. Museum, Madras.
Mysore Govt. Museum, Bangalore.
Archæological Museum, Gwalior.
State Museum, Bikaner.
Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta.

Central Asian Antiquities Museum, New Delhi.
Sardar Museum, Jodhpur.
Archæological Museum, Nalanda.
Trivandrum Museum, Trivandrum.
Bangiya Sahitya Parisad, Calcutta.
Ashutosh Museum (Cal. Univ.).
Darjeeling Museum, Darjeeling.
Khiching Museum, Mayurbhanj.
Gauhati Museum, Assam.
Bombay Natural History Museum, Bombay.
Municipal Museum, Allahabad.
Faizabad Museum, Faizabad.
Bharat Kala Bhavan, Benares.

Indian Universities

Name	*Vice-Chancellors*
Calcutta (1857)	Dr. P. N. Banerjee.
Bombay (1857)	Mahamahopadhya P. V. Kane.
Madras (1852)	Dr. A. Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar.
Allahabad (1886)	Dr. D. R. Bhattacharjee.
Lucknow (1920)	Acharya Narendra Deo.
Nagpur (1923)	Lt. Col. Pt. Kunjilal Dubey.
Patna (1927)	Sir C. P. N. Sinha.
Aligarh Muslim (1920)	Dr. Zakir Hussain.
Delhi (1922)	Sir Maurice Gwyer.
Agra (1927)	Dr. N. P. Asthana.
Benares Hindu (1915)	Dr. Amarnath Jha.
Andhra (1926)	Sir C. R. Reddy.
Annamalai, Chidambaram (1929)	Dr. S. G. Manavala Ramanujam.
Mysore (1916)	Dr. Sultan Mohiyuddin.
Osmania, Hyderabad (1918)	Nawab Ali Yar Jung.
Travancore (1938)	Mr. H. C. Papworth.
Utkal University (1943)	Sri Chintamani Acharya.
Poona University (1948)	Dr. M. R. Jayakar.
Kashmir University (1948)	.. ..
Univ. of Saugor C.P. (1946)	Dr. H. S. Gour.
Jamia Millia Islamia (Muslim National Univ.), Delhi (1921)	Dr. Zakir Hussain.
Rajputana University, Jaipur (1947)	Dr. G. S. Mahajan.
Ind. Women's University (1902)	Mrs. Sarada Mehta.
University of Gauhati	Sri K. K. Handique.
Biswabharati (1921)	Sm. Sarojini Naidu (*President*).
Madhya Bharat University (Indore) 1948	
East Punjab University, Simla (1947)	Mr. Justice Teja Singh.

Technical Institutions

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay.
College of Engineering & Technology, Jadavpur.
Benares Hindu University, College of Engineering.
College of Mining & Metallurgy, Hindu University.
Jaipur Vikram Deo College of Science & Technology.
Alagappa Chettiar College of Technology, Madras.
Luxminarain Institute of Technology, Nagpur.

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Scientific & Technical Academies & Associations in India

Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, founded by Sir William Jones in 1784.

Indian Museum, Calcutta, founded in 1866 which is the main centre of zoological research.

Madras Literary Society—An auxiliary to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, started about 1833.

Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, founded in 1820.

Bombay, Natural History Society, Bombay, founded in 1883. The Society is entrusted with the management of Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum.

Haffkine Institute, Bombay, well-known centre of research in preventive medicine, started in 1899.

Indian Association for Cultivation of Science, Calcutta started in 1876 by Dr. Mohendralal Sarkar.

National Academy of Sciences, Allahabad, founded in 1936.

Indian Academy of Sciences, Bangalore, started in 1934 with a view to holding regular meetings for reading and discussion of original scientific contributions.

National Institute of Sciences, Calcutta for co-ordinating the work of various scientific institutions and Government scientific departments and services, was inaugurated in January, 1935.

Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, started on 6th July 1917, on the 80th birthday of the famous orientalist, Sir R. G. Bhandarkar with the object of publishing oriental editions of text-books on antiquities, to provide up-to-date library and to train students in research work.

Indian Chemical Society—University College of Science, Calcutta; founded in 1924.

Indian Institute of Science—Bangalore, started in 1911. It offers post-graduate work in five main branches of science, namely: Physics, Cosmic ray research, General Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Biochemistry Electrical Technology, and Aeronautical Engineering.

Indian Mathematical Society—Calcutta, founded in 1907 for the advancement of Mathematical studies in India. It has a library which is located at Fergusson College, Poona.

Indian Society of Oriental Art—Calcutta, started with the object of reviving interest in Indian Art and Culture.

Indian Science Congress Association—was organised in 1914. It is the oldest General National Scientific Society in India. The objectives of the Association are to give a stronger impulse and a more systematic direction to scientific enquiry, to promote the intercourse of scientists and individuals interested in science in different parts of the country, to obtain a more general attention to the objects of pure and applied science and the removal of many disadvantages of a public nature which may impede its progress. The scientific work is divided into 13 different sections representing all branches of science.

Institute of Engineers—8, Gokhale Road, Calcutta, founded in 1921. Its main object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in all the branches, to diffuse information on all matters, affecting engineering, to regulate and elevate the technical and general knowledge of persons engaged in engineering and also to advise and control education in technical colleges and schools. The Institute received Royal Charter 1935. The privilege entitles the members to describe them as *Chartered Engineers, (India)*.

P. E. N. (India Centre)—The Indian Centre of P. E. N. was started in Bombay in 1933 by Sophia Wadia for poets, editors, essayists, novelists (P. E. N.)

Bose Institute—Established by Sir J. C. Bose at Calcutta in 1917 to carry researches on plant life.

Waterways Experiment Station—Eleven miles from Poona at the foot of the Khadakwasla Dam on Lake Fife is the Indian Waterways Experiment Station, the first and only of its kind in India was started in 1919. Investigations are carried out here with the aid of small or semi-large models to solve problems, both basic and specific, concerning irrigation and river training. It is now proposed to change the name to *Central Waterways, Irrigation and Navigation Research Station* with head quarters at Delhi and branch at Poona.

Kalakshetra, Adyar, Madras—started in 1936 by Rukmini Devi with the object of popularising the principle and practice of various Hindu classical dances, Bharat Natyam, Kathakali, etc., music, dramatic arts, paintings, etc.

**National Fuel Research Institute, Digwadih, near Dhanbad*, foundation stone laid on Nov. 1946, established by the Government of India at a cost of Rs. 14 lakhs. The functions of the Institute are to make a survey of Indian coals and to carry out researches on processing with a view to manufacturing metallurgical coke, and investigations on low-temperature carbonisation and tar distillation for producing dyes, drugs, plastics, explosives and synthetic liquid fuels.

**National Metallurgical Laboratory, Jamshedpur*—Foundation stone laid on Nov. 1946. The initial capital expenditure will be about Rs. 34 lakhs.

**National Physical Laboratories, Delhi*—foundation stone laid on Jan. 1947, to be established at an estimated cost of Rs. 40 lakhs. It will be concerned with basic researches on standards, applied physics and properties of materials.

**National Chemical Laboratory, Poona*—foundation stone laid in April, 1947. This laboratory will cost Rs. 35 lakhs. Promotion of industrial chemistry and the utilisation of India's raw material resources through fundamental and applied research will be the main objects of the National Chemical Laboratory.

**Central Glass & Ceramic Research Institute, Calcutta*—Foundation stone laid in Dec. 1945. The Institute will cost Rs. 12 lakhs.

**Building Research Station, Roorkee*—beginning has already been made with the co-operation of the Thomason Engineering College.

**Leather Research Institute, Madras*—foundation stone of the institute was laid at Madras on 24th April, 1948.

**Electro-Chemical Industries Research Institute, Karaikadi* (Madras)—foundation stone was laid at Karaikadi on 25th July 1948 with a donation of Rs. 15 lakhs by Dr. Alaguppa Chettiar.

†*Road Research Institute, Delhi.*

†*Drug Research Institute.*

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*All these Institutes and Laboratories are planned by Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. Of these the first five are in course of erection and are expected to start functioning by the end of 1949.

†*Central Food Technological Instit.*

†*Building Research Institute.*

Delhi Polytechnic—A first class technical institution under Government of India—There are departments of Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Technology and Commerce.

Indian Institute of Metals—was inaugurated on Dec. 29, 1947 in Delhi with the object of promoting and advancing the study and practice of the science and technology of making, shaping and treating metals and alloys.

Indian Standards Institution—This body which is already enrolled as a member of the International Standard organization (I.S.O.), Geneva, has been started under Dept. of Government of India with the object of improving standards of Indian products, to bring them up to quality levels competitive with foreign products and to standardise the quality of Indian goods for consumption at home and for export abroad. It is a quasi-government body. It has five sections—for textiles, engineering, building, chemical and food and agricultural products, each controlled by a Divisional Council.

Institute of Lac Research, Nam-Kum, Ranchi.

Tata Institute of Fundamental Sciences of Cosmic Research.

Bengal River Research Institute, Calcutta.

MINERALS OF INDIA

India's Position—The distribution of minerals in India is very localised. The main coal-fields are situated in Gondwana region (Bengal, Bihar, Orissa); oil-field is located in Assam. Iron-ores are also mainly centred in one place; other minerals such as borax, sulphur, magnesite, ilmenite, gypsum are scattered far and wide. This sort of scattering distribution of minerals makes co-ordination of production and distribution impossible. India lacks the base metals, her known deposits of tin, lead, copper and zinc being modest. But her most serious deficiency is for oil. Her production on the Burma frontier is less than 1 p.c. of world's output. Yet it must be said that in some minerals, India holds a record position, such as—

1. India possesses the world's largest reserves of the richest class of iron ore and manganese ore.
2. She is the provider of a third of world's output of manganese.
3. India maintains her position as the second coal-producing country of the British Empire.
4. India is now the second largest producer of iron and steel in the British Empire excelled only by the United States.
5. India has the largest deposits in the world of high grade iron ore.
6. India leads the world in magnesite.
7. India supplies 80 p.c. of the world's output of mica.
8. India is the largest producer of ilmenite.

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†These Institutes and Laboratories have been approved by the Government and are being planned

CSL

9. India has been the world exporter of mica, manganese ore, ilmenite and titanium ore, and she exports considerable quantity of chromite, magnesite and kyanite.

Minerals of Strategic Importance—Minerals of strategic and defence importance can be regarded as adequate in India although in parts only; there is a serious deficiency in munition metals like tungsten,, tin, lead, zinc, mercury and also in graphite and liquid fuels. But in the basic metals, iron, manganese, aluminium, magnesium and chromium, the country is well supplied, in the first three in large excess.

Four Categories of India's Mineral Resources—The mineral resources of India can be divided into four categories (1) minerals of which India's exportable surplus can dominate world market, (2) minerals of which the exportable surplus forms an important factor, (3) minerals in which it appears the country is at present self-sustaining and (4) minerals for which India has to depend largely or entirely on foreign imports. To the first category belong iron ore, titanium ore and mica, while the exportable surplus under the second head includes manganese ores, bauxite, magnesite, refractory minerals, natural abrasives, steatite, silica, gypsum, monumental granites, monazite, corundum and cement materials. In the number of minerals including coal, aluminium ore, mineral pigments, sodium salts and alkalies, rare earths, berylium, glass sand, nitrates, zincon and phosphates, the country is known to be self-sufficient. And lastly, the following are the minerals for which it has to depend solely on imports: copper ore, silver, nickel, petroleum, sulphur, lead, zinc, tin, flourides, mercury, tungsten, molybdenum, platinum, graphite, asphalt and potash.

Government Departments—The main department that looks after the minerals of India is the *Geological Survey of India.* This department helps to increase India's mineral resources. It has been publishing various technical records and bulletins giving geological information on commercial and other minerals. Enquiries from industrialists are being answered by its information section.

The activity of the department is also directed to the compilation of a geological map of India and to the collection and dissemination of information regarding the mineral resources of the country. The department is responsible for the up-keep and administration of the geological section of the Indian Museum.

Mineral Information Bureau has been set up in 1946 to give information and advice to industries. The main function of the Bureau will be the dissemination in non-technical language of facts relating to Indian minerals, fuels, iron ore, ferro-alloy minerals, light and base metal minerals, precious metals, gems, minerals, for chemical industries, industrial clays, sands and miscellaneous minerals.

It is generally believed that very little geological prospecting has been done in India compared to her potentialities and that mineral wealth of India far exceeds the standard set by the geological survey of India up to this time.

Department of Mines—This department came into existence in 1902 and is mainly responsible for the Indian Mines Act. Headquarters of the department is at Dhanbad. This department is concerned with the inspection of mines, safety of underground workers, wages etc., and mining education of the country.

Five Year Plan of Mineral Investigation—A Five Year Plan of mineral investigation is being taken up by the Government of India to investigate into the reserves and equality of raw materials required for the leading mineral industries of the country. This will explore the resources of the country in iron and steel, coal, manganese, aluminium ore, mica, magnesite, heavy mineral sands, rare-earth minerals, uranium and thorium resources and raw materials required for glass and ceramic industries, refractories etc.

DESCRIPTION OF MINERALS

Coal—is the most valuable mineral product and India stands eighth in the world. The bulk of Indian coal is concentrated in one enormous series of deposits known as 'Gondwana system.' A little over 98 p.c. of Indian coal is raised from gondwana coal beds and about 2 p.c. from Tertiary beds. This system stretches across Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Central India and Central Provinces and Hyderabad. The Tertiary beds are found in Assam and Rajputana. A little coal is also produced in Hyderabad. The coal-fields of Bihar and Bengal account for about nine-tenths of India's output. Jharia and Raniganj are the principal coal-fields and from them about 72 p.c. of total output is obtained. Jharia coal-field produces the best Indian coal. In Hyderabad, the principal coal field lies in Snigarin, 146 miles from Hyderabad. Largest market for Indian coal is home market. A Coal Grading Board under Government arranges for the classification and certification of the coal exported, so that buyers overseas may rely on quality supplies.

The total output of coal at present is in the neighbourhood of 30 million tons; of the total production Bihar accounts for 55 per cent., Bengal 28 per cent., C. P. 6 per cent., Eastern States 5 per cent., Hyderabad 4 per cent., etc.

Foundation stone for *Fuel Research Institute* at Digwadih, near Dhanbad was laid in 1946. The function of the Institute will be to make survey of Indian coals and to carry out researches on processing with a view to manufacturing metallurgical coke and investigation on low-temperature carbonisation and tar distillation for dyes, drugs, plastics, explosive and synthetic liquid fuels.

India has now nearly 1,000 coal mines employing about 250,000 workers. The industry is mostly in private hands, and concentrated mainly in Bengal, Bihar and C. P., but one notable fact is that Indian Railways own several rich coal mines in Bokaro and Giridih and also in the Indian States of Talcher and Morea.

Manganese—Next in importance to coal is *manganese*, one of the key metals. Its chief use being in the manufacture of steel. It is also extensively used in the chemical industry and in making of dry cell batteries. India comes next to Russia on the list of countries producing manganese ore and accounts for about one-third of the world's output. The Central Province is the largest producer of manganese ore and is responsible for about 65 per cent of the total production in India. Other provinces producing manganese are Bombay, Bihar, Orissa and Madras. Principal customers of manganese are United Kingdom, France, Japan and U. S. A.

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Gold—takes the third place which in India is mined in the State of Mysore in Kolar where 95 per cent. of Indian output of gold comes. India's production of gold is only about two per cent. of the total world production (excluding U. S. S. R.). Alluvial gold is found with sands in some of the rivers of India—such as rivers of Singhbhum, Orissa etc.

Mica—Fourth place is occupied by *Mica*. India is the biggest supplier of mica and is responsible for three-quarters of the world's production of block and sheet mica. Bihar belt is the oldest and the most important of the areas producing mica in India. The best variety of mica *viz.*, Bengal Ruby mica comes mostly from the Bihar mines which are scattered over Hazaribagh and Gaya districts of Bihar. The second mica belt is in the Nellore District of Madras. The main use of mica is the manufacture of electrical apparatus. The next important use of mica is in the shape of micanite by electrical engineers, colliery companies, manufacturers of iron, steel and electrical apparatus. Waste and scrap mica is ground and used for wall-paper industry, manufacture of paints, rubber industry etc. The average annual export of mica from India is 11,250 tons valued at Rs. 217 lakhs.

Petroleum—is the last of five great minerals of India. India contributes only 1·10 per cent. of the world's production. The production comes from the Digboi field of the Assam Oil Company in Assam. This covers an area of 2½ sq. miles.

Iron—India's resources in high-grade *Iron* ore are perhaps the greatest in the world. The total quantity of ore in the Bihar and Orissa belt, estimated at 2,832 million tons is sufficient to meet the requirements of the Indian producers for a thousand years. The iron content of the Indian ore is the highest in the world. Iron ore mining, the blackbone of Indian iron and steel industry is located mainly in Bihar and the adjoining States of Mayurbhanj and Keonjhar. A few mines exist also in Mysore State about 25 miles from Bhadravati works. But the superior and the most valuable ores are only available in the Singhbhum District of Bihar and in the iron belt of Orissa. Here is Noamundi (on B. N. Ry.), the biggest mine in the whole of Asia and it is owned by the Tata Iron and Steel Works Ltd. Tins and other important mines are all situated within hundred miles from Jamshedpur.

Salt—in India is obtained at the Great Salt Lake at Sambhar and certain subsidiary sources in Rajputana and at Kharagoda on the Runn of Cutch, on the north-western and south-eastern littorals of India; salt is made from sea brine in large number of works which are scattered along the coast. More than two thirds of the total production comes from sea water of the Bombay and Madras coasts. India has lost rock salt produced at the mines of Punjab Salt Range and Kotah, each have gone to Pakistan. The only rock salt produced in India is in Mandi State, East Punjab.

Aluminium—is the only non-ferrous metal of which so far as is known, India possesses large deposits. Year 1943 saw aluminium produced for the first time in India at the Alupuram (Travancore State) Reduction Works of the Indian Aluminium Company. Since then spectacular developments have taken place. The rolling mills in Belur, Calcutta produce sheet metal, components etc., etc. The construction of Aluminium Works for the treatment of Indian bauxite at Muri (Bihar) is nearing completion. The Aluminium Corporation of India has also started work at Asansol.

Ilmenite—One of the most striking features of India's mineral industry is the rapid rise in the production of *ilmenite.* India has now become the world's leading producer of this metal. It is the whitest of all substances and will replace lead more or more in the manufacture of white pigment. The mineral occurs in the "Black Sand" of the beaches near Cape Comorin, the southern-most point of India.

Monazite and Zircon—are also available on the beach sands of Travancore and Cape Comorin. They are recovered by washing and magnetic separation. Zircon yield, Zirconia, a high grade refractory and also an alloy material. In monazite India leads all other countries of the world. About 88 p.c. of this mineral is supplied from India.

Chromite—the oxide of chromium and iron is used for furnace lining and is mined in Mysore and the Singhbhum district of Bihar. Mysore is the principal supplier accounting for nearly 65 p.c. of Indian production.

Magnesite—is valuable to cement, glass, paper, rubber, cosmetics, refractories and aircraft industries and is obtained in the hills of Salem district of Madras and also in Mysore State, Rajputana, Kashmir, Baluchistan and Bihar.

Bauxite—India has vast deposits of good *Bauxite* scattered all over the country. The typical examples are Tungar Hill, only 30 miles from Bombay city. There are also vast quantities in Balaghat, Jubbulpore, Mandala, Seoni and Nandgaon districts of the Central Provinces and in Bihar. It is largely used as filtering material in petroleum refineries and for the manufacture of alum and aluminium.

Cement—The ingredients of *cement* are all available in abundance in India. The principal cement producing centres are Porabandar in Kathiawar, Katni in C. P., Lakheri in Rajputana, Jubbulpur in C. P., Bihar, Guntur in Madras, etc.

Kyanite—India is the principal producer of *Kyanite,* the most important of the minerals used in the refractory and ceramic industries. The main deposits of Kyanite in India occur in Singhbhum, Kharasawan and Seraikela along the northern side of the copper belt.

Copper—ores in India mainly occur in the Singhbhum and Baragunda of Bihar. Here the mine is worked by Indian Copper Corporation.

Limestone—used principally for the manufacture of cement and for constructional purposes and also as a flax in smelting of iron and lead ores, is found in Rohtasgarh in Sahabad district of Bihar, at Katni in C. P. in States of Bundi, Jodhpur, Sirohi in Rajputana, in Rewah and Mahiar State of Central India.

Gypsum—is widely developed in Rajputana, Kathiawar. But the chief producers of gypsum is Bikanir, Jodhpur and Jaisalmir,. Rajputana raises nearly 80 p.c. of the Indian output. Gypsum is extensively used in cements and plasters, as paints and filters and as 'top-dressing' in agriculture.

Steatite—is also known as soap-stone, pot-stone, talc and in its powdered form as 'fresh chalk' is one of the most variously used industrial minerals. It is available in Jaipur State, Guntur district in Madras, Jubbulpur.

Precious Stones—Actual diamond mines are in the State of Panna, Central India. *Sapphires* of a very clear blue colour are obtained in Kashmir at an altitude of 14,000 ft. *Garnets* of a rich deep purplish red are found in Barwar District in Kishengarh State and the adjoining tracts of Jaipur State.

Base Metals—India in singularly poor in deposits of *base metals*—tin, lead, zinc and copper. The tin occurs in the mica belt of Bihar and are of no practical importance. There is one area in which copper mining has been conducted—the copper belt of Singhbhum, Bihar.

Lead ores—are found in Jaipur State and in Zawar mines in Udaipur State, also in Chota Udaipur State and Hazaribagh.

Miscellaneous Minerals—Of the other minerals useful in industry India is already producing *gypsum* (Kashmir, Madras, Punjab, Rajputana, U.P.); *Steatite* (Guntur in Madras, Bihar, Central India, Central and United Provinces, Eastern States, Mysore and Rajputana); *Fuller's earth* (C.P., Punjab and Rajputana); *Barytes* (Madras and Rajputana); *Ochres* (Central Irdia Central Provinces, Eastern States Madras, Orissa, and Rajputana); *Graphite* (Mysore, C.P., Madras, Eastern, States); *Tugsten ore* (Jodhpur State); *Asbestos* (Eastern States, Mysore and Rajputana); *Felspar* (Mysore and Rajputana); *Garnet sand* (Madras); *Bentonite* (Jodhpur); *Aptatite* (Bihar and Madras); *Tantalite* (Monghyr in Bihar) and *Antimony ore* (Chitral State).

Mineral Production of India

	Coal (000 tons)	*Gold* (ounces)	*Petroleum* (000 gallons)	*Iron ore* (000 tons)
1938 ..	28,343	321,138	87,082	2,744
1939 ..	27,769	341,515	81,459	3,166
1940 ..	29,383	289,324	96,689	3,104
1941 ..	29,464	285,930	101,451	3,195
1942 ..	29,433	260,302	97,736	3,217
1943 ..	25,511	252,228	95,719	2,655
1944 ..	26,127	188,206	97,453	2,364
1945 ..	29,167	168,366	82,695	2,264
1946 ..	29,710	131,775	76,752	2,372

	Mica (cwts.)	*Copper ore* (tons)	*Salt* (000 tons)	*Manganese* (000 tons)
1938 ..	123,169	288,127	1,538	968
1939 ..	139,758	360,624	1,499	844
1940 ..	150,349	401,293	1,646	869
1941 ..	184,534	381,449	1,779	785
1942 ..	185,542	363,166	1,892	757
1943 ..	159,581	359,789	1,927	595
1944 ..	139,392	326,017	1,865	371
1945 ..	128,313	329,325	1,944	211
1946 ..	128,864	352,712	1,918	253

Consumption of Coal per head in India

	Tons.		*Tons.*
1937	0·7	1941	0·7
1938	0·7	1942	0·7
1939	0·7	1943	0·6
1940	0·7		

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* This includes States and relates to Undivided India.

Coal Price

	Export value per ton	*Price at Pit's mouth*
	Rs. A.	Rs. A.
1941 ..	9 10	3 11
1942 ..	9 15	4 7
1943 ..	13 3	6 10
1939-40 (Average)	10 6	4 6

INDIAN INDUSTRIES

The Leading Industries of India—Cotton textile, Jute, Iron and Steel, Sugar, Tea, Hides and Skins, Lac are the principal industries of India. The lac industry of accounts for 85 per cent of the world production. In tea industry India occupies the second place. India is one of the principal tobacco-producing region of the world, being second only to U. S. A. India is now one of the leading cotton manufacturing countries of the world. India has now became the largest sugar producing country in the world. India is the worlds' major supplier of raw and half-tanned hides and skin.

Nationalisation of Industries—Government of India's policy with regard to the nationalisation of industries has been stated by the Labour Minister Mr. Jagjiwan Ram in 1948—"Nationalisation had been the ideal of the Indian National Congress for nearly two decades and is cherished in this country. Though recognised as a desirable idea and as the ultimate objective, the Government of India have not yet found all-round nationalisation practicable owing to various reasons such as lack of technical personnel and more urgent work on hand.

The official policy of the Government has, therefore, been to restrict nationalisation to certain spheres of industry and allow for the next 10 years an orderly and sound development of private industry."

Central Advisory Council of Industries—Government of India have established in 1948 under Chairmanship of the Minister of Industry and Supply, a Central Advisory Council of Industries to assist Government in securing the maximum increase of industrial production and to advise them on specific questions relating to industry. The main functions of the Council will be—(1) to advise government generally on industrial policy, (2) to review periodically production in the major industries of the country and to advise government on steps to be taken to secure the best use of existing capacity, (3) to advise government on the allocation of raw materials in scarce supply, (4) to advise government on the import of capital equipment and raw materials needed by industry, (5) to deal with specific problems which might be placed before the council by the government from time to time.

Cottage Industries Board—Government of India have constituted in 1948, under the Ministry of Industry and Supply the Cottage Industry Board with following functions—"to advise and assist the government on the organisation and development of cottage and small scale industries, to examine and advise how cottage industries and small scale industries can be co-ordinated with large scale industries, to examine the Schemes of the Provincial and State Governments for the promotion of cottage and small scale industries; to advise the government in the marketing of products of cottage and small scale industries.

Council of Scientific and Industrial Research—The central organisation whose activities relate directly to the promotion of industry is the Council of Scientic and Industrial Research. Council, whose activities constitutes the first organised effort in India to popularise the application of science to industry, has under it 24 expert committees which from time to time survey the scientific needs of the various groups of industries and suggest means to develop them. A committee termed *Industrial Liaison Committee* has been formed under the auspices of the Council to keep in constant touch with the industries on matters relating to the utilisation of the results of researches carried out under its auspices.

Industrial Finance Corporation -The establishment of a suitable agency to provide medium and long term capital for the requirements of industry has been a long-feet need in India. This credit can not be supplied normally by the commercial banks. Hence Industrial Finance Corporation has been established by the Act passed in 1948 jointly owned by the Government, the Reserve Bank, Scheduled Banks, Insurance Companies and other institutional investors. The Corporation is authorised to make loans and advances to industrial concerns and also guarantee loans raised by such concerns in the market all repayable within a period of 25 years.

Profit-sharing in Industry—Six industries namely cotton, textiles, jute, steel (main produces), cement, the manufacture of tyre and the manufacture of cigarettes have been recommended by the Committee on Profit Sharing in 1948 as sectors in which an experiment in profit-sharing may be tried in the first instance for a period of five years. In the case of textile industry, profit sharing will be tried on an industry-cum-locality basis in Ahmedabad, Bombay and Sholapur. There are no government undertakings in the sectors recommended for trying profit sharing. The report of the Committee declare 'future policy' can only be developed in the light of experience gained during the period. If the initial experience is not unsatisfactory, we would further recommend the government should consider extension of the scheme to other suitable industries.'

DESCRIPTION OF INDIAN INDUSTRIES

1. **Cotton Textile** —First cotton mill in India was erected at Fort Gloster in Calcutta in 1818. But the real development of cotton mill industry dates from 1851 when Bombay Spinning and Weaving Mill was established in Bombay. Since then mills were started in Nagpur, Ahmedabad, Solapur etc., where there were abundance of cotton producing tracts.

Cotton textile is by far the single largest industry in the country. It has a block capital of Rs. 100 crores, employs 600,000 workers and works 10·1 million spindles and 20,000 looms capable of producing 1,650 million lbs. of yarn and weaving 4,700 million yards of cloth.

India is one of the biggest cotton producing countries of the world, being second only to the United States of America. It grows in the dry region of Bombay as well as in the moist province of Bengal. The sticky black soil of the Deccan, Berar, Punjab, Madras, U.P., Bengal, Hyderabad, Central India, is ideal for cotton cultivation. Cotton is cultivated in

Bombay, C.P., Baroda and Rajputana. Half the total area is confined to Bombay and Berar.

The division of India has brought about a peculiar position in cotton textile industry, because the long-staple catton supply for Indian mills comes from Pakistan areas of Sind and Punjab, while Dominion of Pakistan is particularly deficient in cotton mills. Eastern Pakistan having 8 and western sector having only 2.

In 1921 *Indian Central Cotton Committee* was established to improve the quality of Indian cotton in particular and to promote the cause of cotton cultivation in this country in general. Research is carried on cotton technology, ginning and testing of cotton fibres, yarn and cloth. The funds of Indian Central Cotton Committee is divided from a cess of As. 2 on every bale of Indian cottton exported from India or consumed in mills in provinces in India. Cotton Transport Act, Cotton Spinning ad Pressing Factories Act, Bombay Cotton Markets Act, C. P. Cotton Markets Act and Madras Markets Act have been passed to check adulteration and promote better marketing.

Cotton Mills in British India

	No. of Mills	*Looms*	*Spindles*
1940	388	200,076	10,005,785
1941	390	198,574	9,961,178
1942	396	200,170	10,026,425
1943	401	200,890	10,130,568
1944	407	201,761	10,222,107
1945	417	202,388	10,238,131
1946	421	202,814	10,305,169

Production of Cotton Piece Goods in India

	Million yds.		*Million yds.*
1928-39	4,268	1942-43	4,109
1939-40	4,012	1943-44	4,871
1940-41	4,269	1944-45	4,726
1941-42	4,494	1945-46	4,675

***Per capita* Consumption in India of Cotton Piecegoods and Handloom Products**

	Per capita consumption (yds.)		*Per capita consumption (yds.)*
1938-39	16·53	1942-43	11·98
1939-40	15·31	1943-44	14·53
1940-41	14·86	1944-45	14·11
1941-42	13·50		

Mill Consumption of Raw Cotton in India

(*In thousand bales of 400 lbs. each*)

1938-39	3,106·3	1941-42	3,938·6
1939-40	3,030·3	1942-43	4,033·8
1940-41	3,338·9	1943-44	4,344·6
		1944-45	4,090·6

2. Iron and Steel—We do not know now when iron was first produced in India, but looking at the famous Iron column at Kutub Minar near Delhi which up to now has never rusted, we can easily say that iron production in India is probably three thousand years old. The iron smelting still exists in India from very ancient times. The modern iron industry in India began in the year 1875 at Barakar near Asansol but the real beginning was made with the formation of Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi (renamed Jamshedpur) in the Singbhum district in 1907. The rapid expansion of the business was due to the stimulus it received owing to War. Pig iron is generally exported to Japan, United Kingdom and U. S. A.

Subsidiary industries that have got up in Jamshedpur are steel tubs, tinplates, enamel ware, wire, nuts, railway wagons, tea and jute mill machinery, galvanized products, etc.

Since 1924 steel industry is under various protective tariffs which has helped much for its speedy development.

Deposits of high grade iron ore are to be found in the following places: (1) *Mysore* where big deposits of quartz-magnesite ore are available. (2) *Singbhum and Orissa*—in what is known as Singbhum Iron Belt, consisting of Singbhum District in which Tata Iron and Steel Company's Steel Works are situated, and neighbouring Orissa Feudatory States. This iron belt extends from Gurumahisani in Mayurbhanj State of Orissa through Keonjhar and Bonai to the Kolhan sub-division of Singbhum. There exist one of the richest iron ore deposits in the world.

India is the second leading iron and steel producing country in the British Commonwealth and this industry is now recognised as one of the biggest in India.

Steel Works in India:—1. Tata Iron & Steel Company Ltd. formed in 1907. 2. Indian Iron & Steel Company started in 1918 at Hirapur and Kulti. 3. Steel Corporation of Bengal in 1936 at Hirapur. 4. Mysore Iron & Steel Works at Bhadravati started in 1930.

In addition to these main producers, there are a certain number of re-rollers, some of whom operate electric furnaces for the production of steel, while majority re-roll from billets and scrap.

The Iron and Steel (major) Panel 1946 put down the largest of steel production for India at 2½ to 3 million tons per year. The present production capacity of finished steel in India is about 1,200,000 tons.

Nationalisation of Steel production—In the statement of Industrial Policy of the Government of India in April 1948 the steel industry has been classified among those industries the existing concerns in which will be allowed to function under private enterprise and given facilities for reasonable expansion for a period of ten years after which the question of their nationalisation would be considered, but all new concerns would hereafter be owned and managed by government. In pursuance of the policy, the Government of India propose to put up two new steel works, each with a capacity of 500,000 tons. The plant will be owned entirely by government and managed by them through the agency of a public corporation.

3. Sugar Industry—The sugar industry now is one of the largest industries in India and second in importance only to cotton textiles. The output of sugar which was only about 300,000 tons in 1932-33 has now risen to over a million tons. At present she is the world's second leading producer of sugar with a share of 26 per cent. of the world's cane sugar production or 16 per cent of cane and beet sugar out together, the first place being occupied by Cuba.

In national economy of this country, it occupies a unique place. The labour force employed in the country about 100,000 and the capital invested is well over Rs. 330 millions.

The sugar industry was given protection for the first time in 1932 and since then the protection is being continued. So rapid was the development of sugar factories after this protection that, in the short space of a quinquennium, from being a country which was mainly dependent on foreign sources for supply for its requirements of sugar, India has now become the leading sugar-producing country in the world. It is the second largest national industry of India.

The sugar industry in India is mainly concentrated in the northern provinces—the United Provinces and Bihar. These two provinces normally produce 80 p.c. of the total output of the country. It is not generally realised that at the present time India has about the largest area under cane cultivation in the world.

Refined sugar is manufactured by three different processes in India, namely, (1) direct from cane from modern vacuum pan factories, (2) from cane by indigenous open pan factories, *i.e.*, "Khandsaris" (through the intermediate process of Rab) and (3) from *gur* refined in modern factories.

Research of Sugarcane—*The Indian Central Sugar-cane Committee* was inaugurated in 1944 by the Government of India as a body corporate registered as a 'society'.

The Committee undertakes the improvement and development of the growing, marketing and manufacture of sugar-cane and its products. It also initiates agricultural, technical and economic research on sugar-cane.

Research Work is carried at the following places, (1) *Imperial sugarcane station, Coimbatore;* (2) *Sugarcane sub-station, Karnal;* (3) *Agricultural Section, Imperial Agricultural Research Institute, Delhi.*

Institute of Sugar Technology and Sugarcane Research, largest of its kind in Asia was founded in Bhadruk farm about 5 miles from Lucknow.

Sugar area and Production

Year ..			*Area under sugarcane (acre)*	*Gross production expressed as gur or jaggery (tons)*	*Total production of sugarcane (tons)*
1939-40	..	..	3,788,000	4,949,000	....
1940-41	..	..	4,749,000	5,992,000	....
1941-42	..	..	3,671,000	4,549,000	46,491,000
1942-43	..	..	3,755,000	5,322,000	45,295,000
1943-44	..	..	4,389,000	6,063,000	61,782,000
1944-45	..	..	4,305,000	5,679,000	57,699,000
1945-46	..	..	3,825,000	5,416,000	56,855,000

Cane Sugar Factories in India

	Factories		Factories
1939-40	145	1943-44	151
1940-41	148	1944-45	140
1941-42	150	1945-46	145
1942-43	150	1946-47	141
		1947-48	141

Net Production of *Gur* in India for Direct Consumption

	Tons		Tons
1941-42	2,829,000	1944-45	3,633,000
1942-43	3,015,000	1945-46	3,578,000
1943-44	3,499,000		

Per Capita Consumption of Sugar

U. S.	103 lbs.	Japan	29 lbs.
U. K.	112 ,,	Australia	114 ,,
Java	11 ,,	New Zealand	115 ,,
Denmark	128 ,,	India	30 ,,
Egypt	29 ,,	Germany	59 ,,
France	54 ,,		

4. **Lac & Shellac**—Lac is a dark red resinous substance by an insect which lives on the twigs of a certain tree. In its refined form, it is known as *Shellac.* The insect is 'inoculated' on to certain trees such as *Kusum, Ber* and *Palas.* The encrustration on the twigs and branches of these trees are known as stick-lac which when scraped, ground and washed, yields seed-lac. The chief lac-growing province is Bihar, particularly Chota-Nagpur division, where 60 per cent. of the total production of India is produced; other lac-growing areas are Central Provinces, Bengal, Assam, U. P., Central India and Eastern States.

The chief uses of shellac have been in the gramophone industry, and polishing furniture, electrical insulation industries, french polish and varnishing industries, hat stiffening industry, ceiling wax, grinding wheels and printing ink, adhesives, cement, pyro-technic and leather-dressing industries, bangles, toys, anti-gas fabrics, oil-cloth, waterproof material, laminated boards etc.

India holds a monopoly of this material and U. S. A. is India's best customer. But India's supreme position is now being challenged by Siam where lac has become a very thriving industry.

Indian Lac Research Institute was started in 1925 at Namkum, five miles from Ranchi for the object of devising improved method of cultivation and to improve the quality of lac and to minimise the effect of insect enemies.

5. **Paper**—The manufacture of paper in India by hand has existed in India for centuries and was at one time well-established. During the later half of the 18th century, whole villages in Bengal were employed in this cottage industry and the trade was in the hands of *Kagajis* (paper-making people).

The manufacture of machine-made paper in India dates from 1870 when Bally Mills were set up on the Hooghly. This Company was not very successful and when it was liquidated, its machinery was taken over by the Titaghur Mills which were established in 1892. The Titaghur mills also absorbed in 1903 the Imperial Paper Mill which had been started at Kankinara, 1892-94. For nearly a quarter of a century after 1892, no new mill was started on the Hooghly. A number of small concerns had also been established in other parts of India. In 1895 there were in all, 8 paper mills in India employing about 3,500 people. The paper industry in India at present is one of the important and essential industries. To-day, the paper factories in the Bengal area account for 40 per cent of the total output of paper in the country. Bengal is thus the principal seat of the paper industry. The growing demand of paper in the country gave fillip to the growth of new mills with the result that the number of units in 1944 producing paper and boards increased to 23 as compared with only 10 paper mills in 1937. Indian mills have also started the manufacture of most varieties of papers and boards. The indigenous manufacture included toilet papers, craft paper, mill boards, corrugated boards, grey boards, duplex, triplex and ticket boards, etc.

The present per capita consumption of papers and boards in India may be taken to roughly about 1·4 lbs. as compared to 150 lbs. in U.K., 175 lbs. in Canada and over 300 lbs. in U. S. A.

The present potential capacity of 15 paper mils in India is estimated to be about 110,000 tons per annum.

India's newsprint requiremennts are always imported from Canada, Norway or Sweden.

The principal raw materials used are bamboo and *"sabai"* grass. Bamboo which is extensively found in Bengal, South-West India, is the chief raw material for the manufacture of high-quality paper in India. *"Sabai"* grass is also grown in U.P., Bihar, Orissa and the Punjab. Waste paper, newspaper and cloth cuttings are also used as ingredients in the manufacture of cheaper classes of papers.

Name of some of the Paper Mills are—*Titaghur Paper Mills, Bengal Paper Mills, Raniganj, India Paper & Pulp Co., Star Paper Mills, Orient Paper Mills, Dalmia Paper Mills, Mysore Paper Mills, Sri Gopal Paper Mills, etc.*

Paper Production in India

	Tons.		*Tons.*
1938-39	59,200	1943-44	97,000
1940-41	88,000	1944-45	100,000
1941-42	94,000	1945-46	84,000
1942-43	91,000		

6. Breweries in India

Alcohol is used for drink, for manufacture of number of chemicals and used as motor fuel for the production of mechanical power. So far as alcohol as drink, it is produced in India as beer, arrack (flowers of mahua or from fermented gur or molasses) and toddy from data palm.

	No. of breweries	*Production (in gallons)*		*No. of breweries*	*Production (in gallons)*
1937 ..	6	1,239,629	1942 ..	52	6,500,000
1938 ..	6	1,176,766	1946 ..	71	12,000,000
939 ..	6	1,234,478	1947 ..	68	10,000,000

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7. **Leather**—India to-day can fairly claim to be world's major supplier of hides and skins, both raw and half-tanned. Leather making is a big Indian industry and is concentrated particularly in the south. It is reckoned that one-third of the world's cattle are to be found in India. Estimated leather production of India includes 20 million cow hides, 5·7 million buffalo hides, 27·5 million goat skins and 17 million sheep skins. The Indian Hides Cess Committee has valued the nation's normal production of raw leather at about Rs. 190 million, with the present value about twice this. Hides and skins, raw as well as tanned form a big item in India's export trade. As a result of partition approximately one-sixth of the bovine population and one-eighth of the goats and sheeps are included in Pakistan area. Production of hides and skins will also be reduced roughly in the same rates. About 75 per cent. of Indian production of raw hides and about 45 per cent of the goat and sheep skins are now-a-days locally tanned, the remainder being exported.

Province of Madras occupies a singular position in India's leather industry. 20 p.c. of the cows, 25 p.c. of the buffaloes, 25 p.c. of the goats and more than half of the total number of sheep in the whole of India are reckoned to be in that province. Madras is also rich in vegetable tanning materials.

Chrome tanning has also developed at a phenomenal rate in the country, specially, in Cawnpore, Calcutta and Madras.

Atttempt is being made by Government for grading of slaughtered cattle hides and for this, hide-grading stations have been started at slaughfer houses at Delhi, Agra, Bombay, Bareilly, Karachi and Rampur.

The existing tanning industry of India may be divided into three main types—primitive village tanning, improved indigenous tanning and modern tanning. Primitive tanning is the special vocation of certain castes like the *chamars*. Improved indigenous tanning is known as "half tanned" leather which is exported in large quantities to European markets. This type of tanning is a special feature of the Madras and Bombay Provinces and adjoining Indian States, specially Hyderabad and Mysore. Modern tanning involving western processes are carried on by very few tanneries, only about half a dozen of them are of considerable dimension. The tanning and leather goods industry of this type is very heavily concentrated in the United Provinces, West Bengal and Madras.

The Indian Leather Industry is still characterised by the two chief attributes of its past tradition, (1) it has essentially remained a decentralised cottage industry inspite of the few big organised tanneries and (2) it has continued to be a craft based more on empirical knowledge than on modern scientific methods.

8. **Tea**—with the single exception of China, India is the largest tea producer in the world.

Origin of the industry—Towards the end of the 18th century, after intensive research, the indigenous tea plant growing in a wild condition was found in Assam about 1823. The matter was taken up seriously in 1834, at the instance of Lord William Bentinck when a committee was appointed to submit "a plan for the accomplishment of the introduction of tea culture into India and for the superintendence of its execution

The first samples of manufactured tea was produced in Assam in 1837. This is the beginning of tea industry in India. At first tea production in India had been carried out under government auspices, but private company took up the tea industry in 1840. The rapid growth of the industry was made possible by the Indian tea driving China tea out of the United Kingdom market.

Area and Production—The tea industry in India is concentrated in Northern India. About 76 per cent of the total area under tea lies in Assam (in Brahmaputra and Surma Valleys) and in two contiguous districts (Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri) of West Bengal. But Assam is the largest producer of tea in India. The elevated region over the Malabar coast in Southern India is responsible for only 19 per cent of the total acreage of tea in the country. Other places producing tea are Almora in U. P. and Kangra in the East Punjab.

Production

	Area in hundreds of acres	*Production in lakhs of lb.*		*Area in hundreds of acres*	*Production in lakhs of lb.*
1939 ..	841	463	1943 ..	843	552
1940 ..	840	471	1944 ..	842	507
1941 ..	840	500	1945 ..	841	528
1942 ..	841	570	1946 ..	841	585

Trade in Tea—Although India produces large quantities of tea, its internal consumption of the product is comparatively very small. The low domestic consumption, however enables India to export large quantities of tea to foreign countries. Tea occupies the second place in the export trade of India, supplying more than 40 per cent of the world's tea trade. She exports about 76 per cent of her total tea production. Indian tea is generally exported to United Kingdom, France, Canada, U. S. A., and Australia.

9. **Hosiery Industry**—The hosiery industry has been in existence in India for the last fifty years or so. The main centres of hosiery manufacture are Bengal, East Punjab, United Provinces, Bombay, Madras and some Indian States such as Mysore, Indore, Gwalior and Kapurtala. The hosiery industry received great impetus during World War I. The Tariff Amendment Act of 1934 gave protection to this trade against the growing Japanese competition and this gave great impetus to the trade which was further increased during World War II.

The hosiery industry is carried on in India in varying units. Some of the large textile mills have separate hosiery section and produce knitted goods on power-driven machines. There are also some fairly large-sized hosiery factories employing power-driven knitters. The industry is also being run on cottage industry basis in several parts of the country. The hosiery industry can be classified as cotton, woollen, silk and artificial silk, according to the type of yarn used in the manufacture of knitted goods.

Cotton hosiery goods are manufactured in Bengal, U.P., the Punjab, Bombay, Madras and several Indian States. This branch of the industry accounts for over eighty-five per cent of the total consumption of yarn by

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the hosiery industry in India. The large output of woollen hosiery comes from the Punjab. The industry is also fairly well-established itself in Cawnpur, Bombay and Calcutta.

10. Cement—The first venture in the manufacture of Portland cement in India took place in 1904 in a small factory in Madras. But cement industry in India owes its development to the War of 1914-18 and it is one of those industries which have grown up without State protection. All the Cement Companies (Dalmias & Associated Cement Companies) have combined to market their products through the meduim of Cement Marketing Company of India Ltd.

There were 23 cement factories in United India, out of which five have now gone to Pakistan. Production of cement per capita of population in India before partition was 14·6 lbs. with the birth of Pakistan, per capita production of cement in the Indian Dominion is 13·6.

The cement industry is now well-established in India. Cement factories lay scattered throughout the country but, most of them are in Central and Northern India. Factories are generally located near supplies of limestone, the chief raw material for cement.

	Tons.		*Tons.*
1935-36	890,683	1942-43	2,183,000
1936-37	997,414	1943-44	2,112,000
1937-38	1,169,894	1944-45	2,048,543
1938-39	1,512,000	1945-46	2,075,350
1940-41	1,721,000	1946-47	2,016,000
1941-42	2,222,000		

11. Silk—India is a great producer of raw silk. Various silk worms are reared in different parts of the country. The following are the principal varieties of silk—mulberry silk, tassar silk, endi and mugha. The four principal silk producing areas are (1) Mysore and Kollegal Taluk of Madras Presidency; (2) Murshidabad, Malda, Birbhum and Rajshahi Dist. of West & East Bengal; (3) Kashmir and (4) Assam. Assam produces silk for *endi* and *mugha* varieties. Of the four varieties of silk known in India mulberry silk is reared in the principal producing areas *i.e.*, Bengal, Mysore, Kashmir, *Eri and Mugha* silk is confined to Assam and *Tassar* silk industry to Bihar and parts of Bengal. Kashmir is the most important silk centre in India and the industry is a state monopoly. Silk manufacture in India is principally a cottage industry. Chief silk trading centres are Amritsar, Benares, Jullundar Malda, Murshidabad, Bankura, Rajshahi, Bhagalpur, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Mysore, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Srinagar.

12. Jute—Indian sub-continent's jute industry is the largest textile industry in the world. Raw jute and manufactures are responsible for about one-third of sub-continent's total export.

Jute growing is confined almost entirely to the Ganges-Brahmaputra delta in the West and East Bengals and the province of Assam and of the total crop two Bengals produce about 80 per cent. Attempts to grow it in America, Egypt, Africa, Arabia, Palestine and elsewhere have proved unsuccessful. With the partition of India 73 per cent of the raw jute produced in undivided India has gone to East Bengal leaving only 27 p.c. to Indian Union. Though East Bengal is the greatest producer of raw jute, all jute mills are situated in West Bengal in and around Calcutta.

For many years Britain was the only country manufacturing jute goods on a large scale with Dundee as the centre of the industry. The methods of jute spinning and weaving were latter introduced in Calcutta where first power-driven mill was put into operation in 1854. More than 50,000 looms are now working in the jute mills with over 1,000,000 spindles.

The usefulness of jute can be summerised thus: it has been said that more than 70% of the world's raw material are packed and transported in jute sacks and containers. Jute yarn and cloth are employed in the manufacture of submarine telegraph and telephone cables. The linolenum industry uses jute fabric in vast quantities. It is dyed and used for paddings and linings for clothing, boats, shoes and so on. Hessian cloths are being used in many houses as window drapings and also for attractive decorations for temporary erections, such as stages and platforms and also carpets and upholstery.

Jute manufacturing industry is localised in a small area on the banks of the Hooghly, near Calcutta. Though 73 p.c. of the jute is produced in East Bengal all the jute mills are located in West Bengal. Jute manufacture may be divided into four classes: (1) *gunny bags* used for packing rice, wheat, oilseeds etc., (2) *gunny cloth* or *hessians* used for baling cotton, wool and other fibres, (3) *coarse carpets* and *rugs*. (4) *cordage*.

Jute is mainly exported to U. K. Germany, U. S. A. and France. Exports of manufactured jute occupies major portion of foreign trade of this country.

The Technological Research Laboratories at Tollygunj are carrying out research on jute growing and jute trade.

Indian Central Jute Committee is an important body constituted by the Government of India to watch over the interests of all branches of the jute trade from field to factory. The office is situated in Calcutta.

Indian Jute Mills Association is the governing body of this industry, although it possesses no statutory powers and all actions which are taken by the Association are on the basis of voluntary acceptance by its members. It has in its membership almost every mill in India and is controlled by a Committee of nine members representing all-India interest.

Technological Research Laboratories of the Central Jute Committee are situated at Tollyganj. Calcutta where spinning tests are carried on at a standard temperature and humidity. Day to day problems of mills are also tackled. There is also useful library on the technology of jute.

Jute manufacture—Production

	Ton (000)		*Ton (000)*
1939-40	1,276·9	1943-44	946·7
1940-41	1,108·1	1944-45	975·0
1941-42	1,258·8	1945-46	973·0
1942-43	1,052·9	1946-47	1,042·0

Estimated quantity of Jute harvested

	000 bales of 400 lbs.		000 bales of 400 lbs.
1939	9,738	1944	6,189
1940	13,172	1945	7,791
1941	5,460	1946	5,352
1942	9,047	1947	1,658*
1943	6,990		

Looms and Spindles

	Looms	*Spindles*	*Average Daily Workers*
1944	64,119	12,93,152	2,90,702
1945	55,729	11,11,429	2,77,289
1946	54,233	10,89,763	2,96,382

12. **Tobacco**—The Portuguese are credited with having conveyed the tobacco plant and the knowledge of its properties to India in about the year 1508. The tobacco was first successfully grown for commercial purpose in Gujrat in Bombay.

India's share in the tobacco production of the world is very high and she is one of the leading tobacco-producing countries, being second only to U. S. A. But as India is a large consumer, only a comparatively small quantity comes out on the export market.

More than half the Indian tobacco is centred in five well-known places—(1) *North Bengal* area consisting of Jalpaiguri, and the State of Cooch Behar, (2) *Guntur area* consists of the District of Guntur, Kistna and adjoining parts of Hyderabad State, (3) *North Bihar area* consisting of Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga and Purnea, (4) *Gujarat area* consisting of Anand, Borsad and Nadiad and Petlad and Bhadran talukas of Baroda State, (5) *Nipani area* consisting of Belgaum and Satara districts of Bombay and also Kolhapur, Sangli and Miraj States.

The Government has set up an *Indian Central Tobacco Committee* to assist in the improvement and development of the production and marketing of tobacco and all matters in incidental thereto. The Committee has set up a Central Tobacco Research Station at Guntur.

Out of the receipts of excise duty of tobacco, a sum is being set up annually for research and development of tobacco. There are Tobacco Research Stations at Nadiad, Nipani, Guntur.

Bidis—There is practically no area where bidis (indigenous cigarettte) are not manufactured. About one fourth of the total production is concentrated in Central Provinces while Madras and Bombay together contribute about 40 per cent of the total *bidi* production with the remainder distributed over the rest of the country.

Cigars—are made entirely in the Madras Province. *Cherrots* are already well known in the principal export markets. The aroma and flavour of the Indian cigar have already secured admiration of smokers: *Cigarette* industry of modern type has developed recently and is making steady progress. Cigarette factories are spread all over India but more important ones are located in Bombay, Calcutta, Bangalore, Saharanpur and Monghyr.

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* Relates to Indian Union.

Tobacco Production

	Production thousand tons		Production thousand tons
1936-37 to 1938--39	489	1941-42	491
1939-40	476	1942-43	431
1940-41	468	1943-44	376*
		1944-45	405

13. Coffee—Coffee industry of India is confined to Southern India, comprising the province of Madras, ..Coorg and the States of Mysore, Travancore and Cochin. Mysore State is an important coffee producer, accounting for nearly 50 p.c. Quantitatively India's position in the world trade is of minor consequence. About 1,000 million rupees worth of coffee enters the world market every year, of which India's share comes to about Rs. 10 million. But qualitatively she holds her own with the world's best coffee from Columbia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Jamaica, Kenya, Arabia etc. Indian coffees are known for their quality and care in preparation.

By the Coffee Market Expansion Act of 1947 entire coffee crop of India is handed to the Indian Coffee Board Pool which is responsible for marketing the coffee thus received.

	Acreage	Production in tons		Acreage	Production in tons
1939-40	182,938	15.546	1943-44	198,319	17,240
1940-41	181,013	14,226	1944-45	201,417	17,300
1941-42	18,412	17.886	1945-46	211,827	25,200
1942-43	194,474	16,257			

Coffee Exports

	Cwts.		Cwts.
1939-40	168,002	1943-44	60,135
1940-41	52,324	1944--45	25,833
1941-42	84,149	1945-46	28,754
1942-43	82,249		

14. Rubber—Rubber is mainly grown in South India. About 75 per cent. of the cultivation is in Travancore. Other places of cultivation are Madras, Cochin, Coorg and Mysore.

With a view to encouraging and ensuring maximum production of rubber, Indian Rubber Production Board has been set up by the Government of India with headquarters at Kottayam (Travancore State) in the heart of rubber producing area. The value of India's rubber production has enormously increased within recent years. Before the war Indian production represented about one per cent. of the total world production.

India's advantage lies in that she has her own rubber plantation. The products like water proofs, bottles, shoes, etc., had been made for some time in this country, but the real foundation of a large-scale indigenous rubber industry was laid with the opening in 1936 of the Dunlop factory in Sahaganj, 30 miles from Calcutta.

Industry alone employs 50,000 people and the estimated value of rubber production in 1945 was about Rs. 3,60 lakhs.

Rubber Production

	Million lb.		Million lb.
1939	32	1944	40
1940	34	1945	36
1941	34	1946	35
1942	34	1947	37
1943	37		

15. Wool—The rise of the woolen industry in India is comparatively recent, although it has flourished as a cottage industry from ancient times particularly in Mysore and Kashmir States, East Punjab and U. P. The two world wars gave it a fillip. Amongst the agricultural commodities exported from India, wool occupies the eighth position; and among livestock and livestock products, it occupies the first position along with raw skins.

India produces including Hyderabad 54,333 million lbs. of wool of which about 41·14 million lbs. are exported every year. The United Kingdom is the principal buyer. India also imports on an average 19·24 million lbs. annually. Of the total quantity of 32·63 million lbs. used for manufacture in the country, 49·6 p.c. used for blankets, 28·7 p.c. by modern mills in the manufacture of cloth, 11·6 p.c. in carpets, 6·8 p.c. for manufacture of yarn and 3·3 p.c. for other purposes.

The total value of wool trade in Indian Union is over Rs. 7 crores, of which more than Rs. 4 crores worth of wool is exported.

The wool produced in the country is generally light, course and uneven. Some good quality wool suitable for manufacture of clothings is also produced.

India imports superior quality of wool from foreign countries to meet her own requirements. Major portion of this comes from the bordering countries, *viz.,* Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Tibet, etc., and the rest from Australia and United Kingdom. Indian exports of woolen manufactures mostly consist of carpets and rugs. Among the other articles exported, shawls constitute an important item.

The manufacture of blankets is the principal woolen industry of this country. Wool of all grades, from the coarsest to the finest, is used for the industry.

Carpet industry is conducted both on a cottage and a factory scale. Finer woolen goods are exclusively made from important woolen yarn by modern woolen mills in India. The most important woolen mills are located in the East Punjab, U.P. and Bombay.

Important areas for the manufacture of other goods such as country tweeds, *lohis,* shawls, etc., mills in U.P., Himachal Pradesh, Amritsar and Ludhiana in the East Punjab and Srinagar, Kashmir.

Woolen mills in Br. India

	No. of mills	looms	Spindles		No. of mills	looms	Spindles
1920-21	8	1,576	50,981	1932-33	16	1,118	54,643
1924-25	12	1,834	80,614	1936-37	34	1,751	57,044
1923-29	12	1,216	63,412	1940-41	37	7,873	71,661

16. Soap —There has been remakable progress of soap industry in India. In 1944 the production of soap was 1,30,000 tons. The soap industry is mainly concentrated in Bombay and Bengal comes next. The other important regions are Mysore and Baroda.

17. Carpet-Weaving Industry—Carpet weaving in India is said to have been carried on since time immemorial. The earliest account of the manufacture of carpets in India is found in Abul Fazal's 'Ain-i-Akbari' which reveals that industry reached its highest excellence during Mughal period; the industry is presumed to have been established in the 15th century A.D.

The industry is now mainly concentrated in Srinagar in Kashmir, Amritsar in East Punjab and Mirzapur in U.P. Carpet weaving is carried on in other provinces of India as well.

18. Glass Industry—The glass industry is a growing industry in India with great future possibility. Indian Union has 170 glass factories. The industry is mainly concentrated in United Provinces, Calcutta, Belgaum in Bombay and Mysore. Of this, U.P. is the leading manufacturer of glass in India with Calcutta coming next. The glassware produced in India are of various types, such as bangles, bottles, globes, tumblers, lamp ware, hospital ware, glass sheets, etc. Industry flourishes both as cottage industry and modern factory industry. The industry has expanded so much from war years that it can satisfy 80 p.c. of India's needs. The Central Glass and Ceramic Research Institute has been started in Calcutta for research and increase of glass industry in India.

19. Hosiery Industry—has been in existence in India for the last 50 years. The main centres of manufacture are in the provinces of West Bengal, East Punjab, U.P., Bombay and Madras and also it is growing in some Indian States. The units vary considerably—some are large-sized factories, some are sections of large textile mills, while some are run on a cottage industry basis.

Different branches of the industry may be distinguished according as cotton, wool, silk or rayon is used as yarn for the manufacture of knitted goods. The cotton branch is the most important and accounts for over 85 p.c. of the total consumption of yarn by the industry.

20. Chemical Industry—The Chemical Industry is made up of two main parts. One of them is "heavy chemicals" under which falls two important groups: (*a*) sulphuric acid and the chemicals based on it and (*b*) the alkali industry *i.e.*, the various forms of soda and compound based on them. The other part of the industry is "fine chemicals" which are used on a small scale and of which about 4,000 productions are known. The term 'fine chemicals' is usually applied to photographic materials, drugs, paints, varnishes, dyestuffs and pharmaceutical products.

The four important aspects of the chemical industry are as follows—(*a*) in the country's defence (*b*) in providing artificial fertilisers (*c*) in being an indispensable accessory for finished products of several other industries (*d*) in relation to public health.

The chemical industries have been mainly developed in the provinces of Bengal, Bombay and Madras. Their development in some Indian States, like Mysore and Baroda has also been considerable.

21. Match Industry—Before the outbreak of the First World War (1914-18), the match industry as a factory industry hardly existed in this

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country. This first match factory which still survives is the Gujrat Islam Match Factory which was founded at Ahmedabad in 1895 under Indian management. The growth of the match industry in India in an original form however, dates from the year 1922, when a revenue duty of Rs. 1-8 per gross was imposed on imported matches at a level which afforded substantial protection to the home industry. As a result of the duty, the indigenous industry began to make rapid progress. By the year 1926, a large proportion of India's total consumption of about 18 million gross per annum began to be catered for by manufacture within the country. The foreign exporters specially "Swedish Match Company" could not stand the competition from new home industry and during the year 1924-25, themselves established factories in India. The Company is now styled Western India Match Company Ltd., and has factories at Ambernath, Bareilly, Calcutta, Madras and Lahore. It has virtual monopoly of match production in this cocuntry and meets nearly 80 p.c. of the demand.

There are in India (inclusive of Indian States) at present, about 150 match factories employing about 16,000 workers.

22. **Non-Ferrous Metals Industry**—Although non-ferrous ores have been known to exist and have been worked in India since ancient times, the non-ferrous metals industry in its present or modern form is essentially a wartime development. It is known that copper at one time used to be smelted in large quantities in Southern India, Rajputana, Singbhum (Bihar) and the sub-montane regions of the Himalayas; but today, India is dependent for most of her requirements of copper upon supplies from abroad. Lead and zinc are reported to exist in many places, such as, Udaipur, Hazaribagh and Singhbhum; but, except for a small production of lead recently started, both these metals are imported from abroad. Similarly, although nickel and cobalt, used mainly for alloys, are known to exist in the ore form in Nepal, and tin is known to occur in Hazaribagh, all the three metals are at present imported. Among the pioneers in the exploitation of India's non-ferrous wealth by modern metallurgical methods may be mentioned the Indian Copper Corporation which commenced manufacturing copper from ore in 1924, and also brass ingots, sheets and circles from Indian copper in 1928. Another company which has played an important part in the development of the non-ferrous metals industry in India is the Indian Cable Company which was formed in 1920 for the purpose of manufacturing copper wire and strand for telephone, telegraph and transmission lines, rubber-insulated cables, and cotton-covered wires.

Before the war, there was practically no other smelting and refining of non-ferrous metal or alloys nor fabrication of semi-finished products, such as rods, sheets or wires. Even in the case of brass sheets, were barely sufficient to meet 40 per cent of India's pre-war requirements. With the outbreak of the war, the position was aggravated with the entry of Japan into the war, as supplies of tin from Malaya and of lead and zinc from Burma upon which India mainly depended were also cut off. This led to the setting up of factories for the refining of scrap which before the war used to be exported mainly to Germany and Japan. This enterprise actively encouraged by Government, achieved considerable success, so much so, that today, the smelting and capacity of both yellow and white metal alloys is in excess of the present requirements of the country.

Copper—At present, the Indian Copper Corporation is the only producer of virgin copper from ore. Its production is about 6,000 tons of refined copper per year. The smelter of the Indian Copper Corporation is situated at Ghatsila on the Bengal Nagpur Railway in Bihar, and its mines are situated in the vicinity. The ore mined by the Indian Copper Corporation is comparatively of poor quality, the copper content being roughly 2 per cent. Other places where copper ore is known to exist in considerable quantitties are the States of Sikkim, Mysore and Jaipur. Practically the whole of the copper produced by the Indian Copper Corporation is converted into brass by the addition of proportionate amounts of zinc.

Lead—There was practically no production of lead in India before 1942-43 when it was started for the first time by the Metal Corporation of India Ltd., Calcutta. Till then, Burma was the chief supplier of India's lead requirements. Lead has been known to occur in a number of places in India, such as Hazaribagh in Bihar, Drug in the Central Provinces, Datia and Gwalior in Central India, and Udaipur and Jaipur in Rajputana. The only lead deposits which are being exploited at the moment are the Zawar mines in the Udaipur State and the Banjari mines in the Jaipur State in Rajputana. Both these deposits are controlled by the Metal Corporation of India.

Zinc—There is no production of zinc in India, nor is it likely to be produced in commercial quantity during the next three years. Zinc is found in the Zawar mines in the Udaipur State in association with lead which is already being commercially exploited.

Tin—There is no production of tin in India nor have any large tin deposits been found or proved. Before the war, India used to depend upon Malaya for the supply of tin. A de-tinning factory has been set up in Bombay, which is said to have been working economically during the war.

Secondary Metals, Alloys and Refining of Scrap—In contrast to virgin or primary metals, *i.e.*, metals extracted from ores, secondary metals are of a secondary origin and result from the use of primary metals and alloys. Amongst alloys which will be considered here are *brass, bronze, gun metal and white metals* of all kinds. The secondary metal industry is located mainly in Calcutta and Bombay with fairly important units in Jaipur, Meerut, Mirzapur and Madras. Their main activity is production of brass and gun metal ingots and white metal alloys.

Brass Ingots—Brass is an alloy of copper and zinc ordinarily in the proportion of either 70:30 or 60:40. Manufacture of brass has been in existence in India almost in every part since ancient times, but mostly on cottage industry scale. The war, witnessed the installation of smelting and refining capacity which is more than sufficient to meet the requirements of the country in respect of both metal and white metal alloys.

Yellow Metal Alloys other than Brass—This category includes gun-metal, bronze, bell-metal and phosphor bronze. The total requirements of these alloys (*i.e.*, yellow metal alloy other than brass) come to approximately 15,000 tons, per year, for which there is ample productive capacity in the country.

White Metal Alloys—(1) The alloys of tin, lead, antimony and copper in varying proportion are known as white metal alloys.

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The total demand for these alloys is approximately 15,000 tons per annum, whereas the productive capacity in the country is about 40,000 tons per annum indicating that the entire demand can be met from local production.

Other White Metals—In these alloys tin is the predominant constituent, being 90 per cent in one aloy and 60 per cent in another alloy. The total demand for these alloys comes to about 7,000 tons, which is amply covered by indigenous production capacity.

Semi-Manufactures—The semi-manufactures consist of sheets, circle strips, rods, other than electrolytic copper wires used for cable and conductors, tubes, pipes, sections, etc.

The production of sheets and circles was developed mostly during the war except in the case of the Indian Copper Corporation which started its rolling operations in its Ghatsila Works in 1928. The industry is situated mainly in Calcutta and Bombay. Besides a number of these organised sheet rolling mills, there are several small units scattered throughout the country, mostly in Bombay, Punjab, United Provinces, and Madras, working on a semi-cottage scale.

Manufactures other than wires and cables—The manufactured articles consist of steam and sanitary fittings, building fittings and hollow wire casting. The industry was developed in wartime and it is now in a position to supply all the Indian demand. The products include taps and cocks and bathroom equipments.

Manufactures, Electrolytic Copper Rods, Wires and Cables—Next we come to the cable industry as a whole. The industry is really divided into two parts, *viz.*, production of black copper rods and manufacture of wires and cables. Before the war, there was only one factory producing wires and cables, *viz.*, the Indian Cable Company at Tatanagar. Since then, another concern has come into existence, *vis.*, the National Insulated Cable Company which has its factory at Calcutta. The production of rods is undertaken by only one firm in Calcutta, *vis.*, the National Rolling Mills, which is really an associate concern of the National Insulated Cable Company.

INDIAN TRADE AND COMMERCE

Peculiarity of Indian Trade and Commerce—War has caused considerable and significant changes in the structure and volume of India's trade.

Main features of India's pre-war foreign trade were: (1) the predominant position of the United Kingdom in both imports and exports (2) the preponderance of manufactured articles in imports. (3) the preponderance of agricultural commodities and raw materials in exports and (4) a normal favourable balance of trade.

The war affected the value, structure and direction of India's foreign trade. The prices soared up as the war advanced and the value of India's imports as well as exports increased considerably. As all the major countries that supplied India's imports were directly involved in war, her imports dwindled considerably. At the same time, the demand for Indian exports increased and resulted in an unprecedented surplus of exports which enabled the country not only to repatriate all her foreign debts, but to build up large sterling balances. Her position thus changed from a debtor to a creditor country. The composition of trade has altered in two important ways. As a result of the shortage of food in the country, it became increasingly necessary to expand production of food in India and various incentives were provided to divert land from cash crops to food crops. Consequently India's capacity to export oil seeds and other cash crops diminished. Despite these measures, the deficit in domestic food requirements has not been made up and India has had to import large quantities of food grains from abroad. The cost of food imports has now became one of the major claims on India's foreign exchange resources. The direction of trade has also undergone a change as the natural consequence of war. There was not much change in the share of U. K. but the shares of U.S.A., Australia and Canada have increased considerably. The middle-east countries also increased in their participation but only in imports.

The volume of India's foreign trade entitles India to occupy fifth place among the countries of the world.

Ministry of Commerce—The Ministry of Commerce is mainly concerned with the promotion of India's foreign trade. To that end it formulates import and export policies. It has a number of Trade Commissioners in foreign countries who look after India's trade interests in these markets. Another activity of the Ministry is the granting of protection to Indian industries whose claims are examined by the Tariff Board which submits its reports to it for decision. It also looks after the progress of the Indian mercantile marine; other activities of notable importance are the participation in International Trade Conferences, collection and interpretation of economic and commercial information and statistics and advising the Government as a whole on the country's various economic problems, administration of Insurance Act and the registration of Trademarks.

Department and Offices of the Ministry of Commerce—The ministry has a number of attached and subordinate offices located at various centres of India. The following are the main offices:—

(*a*) *Chief Controller of Imports*—This office is mainly concerned with the administration of control over imports in general of various articles.

(*b*) *Chief Controller of Exports*—The main functions of the offices are:—to review the Export Control Notification from time to time and to make proposals for relaxation or tightening of control of various commodities, to direct export of more important commodities having regard to the importance of maintaining India's old trade markets on the one hand and the need for earning hard currencies on the other; to fix quota percentages, over all or destinational with regard to specific commodities, and to see that the issue of export licences is done in a fair and equitable manner.

(*c*) *Commercial Intelligence and Statistics*—The office is located at Calcutta and its main functions are: to advise Government on commercial matters and acts as an intermediary between Government of India in the Ministry of Commerce and the commercial public: undertake collection and dissemination of commercial information and compile and publish All-India Statistics on various subjects.

(*d*) *Mercantile Marine Department*—This office is concerned with the administration at the ports of the Merchant Shipping Acts and rules. The

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offices at Bombay and Calcutta have under their control the shipping offices of these ports.

(*e*) *Controller of Indian Shipping*—The main functions of the office are: setttlement of war-time claims in respect of requisitioned vessels, licensing of ships under control of Shipping Act of 1947 and coasting shipping priorities and questions relating to post-war shipping.

(*f*) *Registrar of Trade Marks*—This office deals with the administration of the Trade Marks Act 1940 *i.e.*, registration of trade marks in the provinces of India and in certain States which have entered into reciprocity scheme with India.

(*g*) *Department of Insurance*—The administration of the Insurance Act of 1938 and all actual work is the main function of the office.

Export Control Organization—The control over the export trade of India is exercised by the Government of India under the Import and Export Control Act of 1947. The Ministries of the Government of India which are the ultimate controlling authorities are those of food, industry and supply and commerce. At the head of the Control Organisation under Ministry of Commerce presides the Chief Controller of Exports with his headquarters at New Delhi. These are Deputy Chief Controllers of Exports and Export Trade Controllers in several places.

The articles controlled are grouped into four parts, *viz.*, A, B, C and D *Part A:* includes commodities the supply position of which is very tight. As a general rule, no export licenses are granted for these commodities. *Part B:* articles under this part are controlled by the Ministry of Food; commercial exports of food grains, pulses, flour, vegetable products, fodder, bran and pollard, etc., are prohibited. *Part C:* Articles in this are controlled by the Ministry of Industry and Supply and licences are issued by that ministry. *Part D:* Under this part are included these articles which are controlled by the Ministry of Commerce. All these parts are reviewed from time to time.

Tariff Board—In the statement on Industrial Policy of the Government of India on 23rd April, 1945, it was announced that Government would set up a machinery for investigating claims from industries which were started or developed in war-time and which were established on sound lines, to assistance or protection during transition period. Accordingly Tariff Board was constituted in Nov. 1945. The application for protection are referred to this Board. The Tariff Board exammines the applications if they satisfy the following conditions:—

(1) If a business is established and conducted on sound lines.

(2) If it is likely within a reasonable time to develop sufficiently to be able to carry on successfully without protection or State assistance and that it is an industry to which it is desirable in the national interests to grant protection or assistance to the community.

And if it satisfies the above conditions protection is given upto certain specified period.

Trade with Asiatic Countries—India's trade with Far Eastern countries was not very significant in pre-war days. The main articles of import from them were mineral oil, spices, while the main articles exported to them were cotton manufactures and jute manufactures. During the World War II, trade with countries occupied by Japan was completely suspended. Her trade with Australia, New Zealand and Ceylon however expanded to a considerable extent.

Trade between India and Pakistan—Broadly speaking, it may be said that Pakistan will have an appreciable surplus of raw jute, raw cotton and certain food grains as also of raw wool and hides and skins. At the same time Pakistan will be in deficit in regard to certain essential commodities, such as cotton piecegoods, coal, sugar and iron and steel, cement, paper, which India may be in a position to export.

Composition of Indian Exports and Import:—*Exports:—Jute manufactures* to U. S. A., Argentine, Australia, Canada, Japan, etc., U. S. A. is the largest importer of jute manufactures. *Tea*—United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, U. S. A., Iran, etc., more than 80 per cent of Indian tea goes to United Kingdom. *Hides and Skins:*—United Kingdom, U. S. A., Germany, Japan, France, Italy, etc. *Oil Seeds*—to United Kingdom, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, etc. *Metals and Ores*—to United Kingdom, Japan, Straits Settlements France, U. S. A., Italy, etc.

Imports—Machinery from United Kingdom, Germany, U. S. A., Belgium, Japan, France. *Motor cars* from United Kingdom, U. S. A., Canada, Italy, etc., *Mineral oil* from Iran, China, Borneo, Sumatra, U. S. A., Burma, etc. *Paper* from United Kingdom, Sweden, Norway, Canada, U. S. A., etc. *Silk goods* from China, Japan, Italy, France, United Kingdom, etc. *Chemicals* from United Kingdom, Germany, Japan and U. S. A. *Raw Jute* from Pakistan. *Raw Cotton* from Egypt, U. S. A. and Pakistan.

Statistics of Imports

(*Into Br. India in 000 Rs.*)

	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46	*P.c. of total imports*
Oil	36,48,04	80,70,49	79,37,69	33·01
Cotton, raw ..	17,52,78	24,00,63	22,86,65	9·51
Machinery ..	11,30,16	16,29,76	22,69,44	9·42
Dyes & Colours ..	8,29,55	7,92,39	11,41,22	4·74
Iron & Steel ..	2,02,33	3,55,87	6,65,44	2·77
Hardware etc. ..	2,77,06	3,68,87	6,40,96	2·67
Chemicals ..	4,97,05	6,87,90	6,04,79	2·51
Vehicles ..	1,26,98	4,35,64	6,04,59	2·51
Paper & Stationery ..	1,96,29	2,90,93	5,77,58	2·41
Tobacco ..	1,59,71	2,90,28	3,90,61	1·62
Drugs & Medicines ..	2,08,66	2,87,34	3,64,48	1·52
Liquors	1,25,09	1,08,28	1,78,83	0·75

Statistics of Exports

(*in thousands of Rs.*)

	1943-44	1944-45	1945-46	*P.c. of total Exports in* 1945-46
Raw Jute	8,32,91	7,50,01	15,83,69	6·59
Jute manufactures ..	49,47,19	60,42,52	59,53,00	24·76
Cotton manufactures ..	42,62,42	37,60,17	32,80,17	13·65
Tea	37,88,82	38,12,04	35,52,33	14·78

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Seeds	11,14,92	10,53,35	14,50,71	6·03
Hides & Skins ..	8,51,24	8,19,76	11,48,01	4·78
Metals & Ores ..	2,49,75	2,52,39	1,59,73	0·66
Grains, Pulses, etc. ..	2,30,82	1,23,24	2,73,88	1·14
Wool	2,34,97	3,90,68	6,04,63	2·52
Fruits & Vegetables ..	2,27,55	4,59,14	7,03,90	2·93
Gums, Resins, Lac ..	2,92,63	4,74,70	4,96,58	2·07
Fish	1,55,38	2,25,79	2,66,24	1·11

Direction of Trade

Imports (Lakhs of Rs.)

	1938-39	1944-45	1945-46
United Kingdom	46,49	40,29	61,07
Total Br. Empire	88,56	78,64	101,83
U. S. A.	9,78	52,44	67,40
Other foreign countries ..	36,39	5,80	9,88

Exports (Lakhs of Rs.)

	1938-39	1944-45	1945-46
United Kingdom	55,51	61,78	67,91
Total Br. Empire	85,37	137,99	133,60
U. S. A.	13,88	44,69	61,62
Other foreign countries ..	47,78	22,28	40,83

Direction of India's Sea-borne Trade (Private)

With Commonwealth and Foreign Countries
(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	Imports		*Exports*	
	Br. Commonwealth	*Foreign countries*	*Br. Commonwealth*	*Foreign countries*
1938	87,88	65,54	85,21	76,48
1944	73,92	1,06,98	1,40,90	77,94
1945	90,06	1,47,48	1,30,16	87,97
1946	1,49,11	1,13,47	1,40,91	1,36,64
1947	1,81,70	2,12,06	2,04,43	1,94,26

Direction of India's Total Sea-borne Trade (Private)

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	Imports	*Exports (Ex. re-exports)*	*Balance (Ex. re-exports*
1938	1,53,42	1,61,69	+ 8,27
1944	1,80,90	2,18,84	+37,94
1945	2,37,54	2,18,13	−19,41
1946	2,62,58	2,77,55	+14,91
1947	3,93,76	3,98,69	+ 4,93

Merchandise Imports and Exports

(In millions of Rs.)
[Source: Report of the Currency and Finance]

	Imports	*Exports including re-exports*	*Excess of Imports (−) Excess of Exports (+)*
1939	1,556	1,968	+143
1940	1,690	2,160	+470
1941	1,613	2,004	+390

1942	1,748	2,544	+797
1943	1,150	1,949	+800
1944	1,328	2,105	+777
1945	1,317	2,290	— 28
1946	2,921	2,664	—258
1947	3,338	3,201	—137

NATIONAL DEFENCE

Recent History—With the assumption of national defence on and from Aug. 15, 1947, the Ministry of Defence had to set itself to the immediate task of the required division and reconstitution of the armed forces between India and Pakistan. This continued to go on at first under the overall supervision of the Joint Defence Council with the assistance of the previous C-in-C of undivided India as the Supreme Commander. The dissolution of the Supreme Commander's H.Q. from Dec. 1, 1947 left the reconstitution in the sole charge of the Defence Ministry of India. On the other hand, the repatriation of British officers and other ranks had already started under the Central H. Q. and by the end of 1947 the Indian armed forces were almost completely nationalised except for a few officers and technical personnel of rank who opted to stay for helping the Govt. of India in training, modernising and reorganising the three branches of the defence forces of India. By Feb. 28, 1948, the last of the British units left India and after a gap of more than two centuries, India had a defence force, fully manned and officered by Indians.

But then much yet remained to be done towards modernisation and reorganisation of the forces to enable India to be ready to cope with all eventualities. It was indeed a big job to be performed efficiently and speedily by one C-in-C for all the three services, as there happened to be in India before August 15, 1947. The Defence Ministry, therefore, found it advisable to accept the modern principles and divide the services under three exclusive commands. Accordingly, the service chiefs were redesignated from June 21, 1948 as follows: (1) Chief of the Naval Staff and C-in-C RIN, (2) Chief of the Air Staff and C-in-C RIAF and (3) Chief of the Army Staff and C-in-C Indian Army. With the creation of three independent Service Chiefs it became necessary to create machinery for inter-service co-ordination in various matters and a number of inter-service committees like the Chiefs of Staff Committee, Joint Intelligence Committee, Joint Planning Committee, etc., were therefore set up. These sub-committees along with the Defence Minister's Committee, which is also an inter-service committee at a higher level, function as sub-committees of the Defence Committee of the Cabinet, which is the ultimate authority for taking policy decisions in regard to Defence matters.

Ministry of Defence—With the attainment of freedom, the entire responsibility for the defence of Indian Dominion has fallen on the Ministry of Defence under the charge of a Defence Minister.

Reorganisation Programme—Burdened with the necessity of evolving a defence force fully equipped and trained for modern warfare, the Defence Ministry of the Government of India has taken in hand an ambitious development and reorganisation programme, the most important items of which are as follows:

1. Organisation of a new command.
2. Formation of a National Cadet Corps;
3. Formation of a Territorial Army;
4. Establishment of a Military Academy to train the future officers of the three services;
5. Formation of new training establishments in place of those lost by partition and also to meet the growing needs of India, *e.g.*, Staff College, School of Military Engineering, Naval Training establishments;
6. Development of Ordnance Factories;
7. Scientific Research and Development in defence services;
8. Organisation of liaison and procurement office in the U. K. under the High Commissioner of India for all the three services;
9. Modernization and strengthening of India's naval fleet by acquisition of new vessels;
10. Strengthening of India's Air Force.

National Cadet Corps—On April 8, 1948, the Indian Parliament passed the *Indian National Cadet Corps Act* with the object of (*a*) developing character, comradeship, idea of service and leadership in the youth, (*b*) giving the youth of the country basic military training and training in the weapons and equipment of three Services and thus attracting suitable young men to join country's armed forces, (*c*) stimulating interest in the defence of the country and (*d*) building up a reserve of leaders to enable the armed forces to be expanded rapidly in a national emergency. The corps which has been raised from all provinces in India and from the major States has two Divisions—Senior (Army, Naval and Air Force wings) and Junior. The former is intended for colleges and universities and the latter for schools. The strength of the Senior Division is 16,052, while that of the Junior Division is 20,320. As a third division, a girls' division is to be raised shortly.

The N.C.C. is entirely voluntary, with no liability for services in the Armed Forces. There is no direct financial inducement to those joining the Corps.

Territorial Army—On September 1, 1948 was passed the *Indian Territorial Army Bill* primarily (*a*) to form a second line of defence in the event of a national emergency, (*b*) to undertake internal defence and thereby relieve the Regular Army of this responsibility under emergency conditions, (*c*) to be responsible for anti-aircraft and coastal defence and above all (*d*) to give the youth of the country an opportunity of receiving military training to enable them to bear arms when called to do so. With a presently contemplated strength of about 1,30,000, the territorial army will be maintained on a zonal basis in 8 zones and will comprise technical and administrative units pertaining to all arms and services of the Regular Army to form a balanced force by itself. Every individual joining the Territorial Army will be required to undergo a period of intensive training for a month or two every year and a certain number of parades each month. The age limit in the Force will vary from 18 to 35.

For purposes of recruitment, India has been divided into eight zones: (1) Delhi, East Punjab, Rajasthan and Matsya Unions, the Rajputana States of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner and Jaisálmer, Madhyabharat, Bhopal, Patiala and East Punjab Union, Himachal Pradesh and Ajmer-Merwara, (2) the U.P., States of Benares, Rampur and Tehri-Garhwal and Vindya Pradesh; (3) C. P. and Berar including the States merged in this province; (4) Bombay including the States merged in this Province, Baroda and Saureshtra; (5) Madras including merged States, Coorg, Mysore, Cochin and Travancore; (6) Bihar, Orissa including merged States; (7) West Bengal and (8) Assam, Tripura, Manipur and Cooch Bihar.

As for *Air Force,* a plan for building up a strong *Air Force* has been worked out. The Initial Training Wing at Coimbatore to which young men accepted for service are first sent for instruction, the Elementary Flying School at Jodhpur and the Advanced Flying School at Ambala, along with training schools for ground personnel at Bangalore and Madras were expanded and a paratroop training school was started. Selected R. I. A. F. officers are being sent to U. K. and other countries for specialised training.

As to a *War Academy,* land has already been acquired at Kharakwasla near Poona for building the National War Academy of India. Immediately after the termination of the World War II the question of creating a befitting memorial for the gallant servicemen of the country was taken up and it was decided that the best methods of commemorating the valour of the fallen soldiers would be to establish a war academy to train officers for all the three services. A Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. Amarnath Jha visited U. K. and the U.S.A. to report to the Government of India. It is now decided that at the academy, now to be established, a special 3-year course will be given at the beginning, and 500 cadets will be admitted each year for training in all the three services. It is expected to be an unique inter-service training institution for providing the requirements of officers of the three services.

First significant step towards modernization of *Indian Navy* was the acquisition of a 7,000 ton cruiser of the Leander class "H. M. I. S. Delhi", modernised with the latest weapons and equipment like radar. The three destroyers have been acquired from the U.K., namely H.M.I.S "Rajput", H.M.I.S. "Ranjit", and H.M.I.S. "Rana".

In view of the great importance of scientific research and the use of scientific methods in the modernisation and development of defence and in the conduct of war operations which have all been proved beyond doubt in the last war, *a Board of Scientists* has been formed to advise the Government of India on the subject of scientific organisation of the defence forces. In this matter, advise is understood to have been sought from the head of the British board of defence scientists.

Due to various reasons the procurement of defence stores and equipment from abroad has become more difficult than in the past. So a strong organisation in the U. .K., to look after these matters, knowns as *Armed Forces Liaison and Procurement Organisation* has been created in the High Commissioner for India in U. K. The Liaison Organisation has three cells, one for each service and the officers working in these cells always keep themselves in as close touch as possible with the Service Ministries of the U.K. The purpose is in part to look to it that the Armed Forces of India do not lag behind in the matter of technical knowledge and equipment. The Procurement Organisation similarly keeps in touch with the Ministry of Supply in the U.K.

INDIAN ARMY

Leaving the pre-British history of the Indian army out of account, it may be safely said that the structure and organisation of the Indian army as we see it today date back to the period after the famous Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, the most important dates of reorganisation being 1895, 1904, 1907, 1918 and 1920. The command system introduced in 1895 was abolished in 1907 and reintroduced in 1918, the number of commands being increased from three to four in 1920. The final reorganisation of the Indian Army, as a defence force, came after the Chatfield Committee Report of 1938. During this period the Indian Army was maintained for policing duties and were equipped with antiquated armaments when need arose, the important duties being assigned to the British units. The rise of newer world powers and the loss of Britain's pre-eminence made the Committee recommend (1) maintainance of adequate forces in India for not only local defence but also for external defence, (2) reduction of the British troops by 25%, (3) mechanisation and complete modernisation of the Indian Army and (4) attainment of self-sufficiently in armaments as far as possible. It is not strange therefore that the army which set a new standard of valour in World War I made history in World War II. The army hitherto known as 'rice soldiers' attacked and drove the Italians and Germans in North Africa and Italy in their advance to clear the way for forces coming behind them. Similarly the Indian Army secured victory in the Burma Front under very difficult circumstances and after long, arduous struggle.

In the post-war period, the newly acquired knowledge about the exploits of a part of the self-same forces in the Indian National Army instilled a new idea and consciousness in the minds of the Indian people. The subsequent communal disturbances and the eventual partition of India wrought considerable damage to the organisational unity and the new sense of responsibility. But it has been amply proved in the Kashmir and Hyedrabad operations and even before that in the super-human task of evacuation of refugees from Pakistan that an idea once acquired cannot be destroyed by the most satanic designs if there is will behind the administration. The permeating of the idea of national insecurity led the forces to create history at the tops of the Himalayas in defensive and offensive operations. Restoration of peace in Hyderabad after the lightning operations is another glory to the credit of the Indian Army, all acquired within a short span of time after the division of India and the disorganisation of the army following it. The climax of it has been reached with the appointment of Lt.-Gen. Kodandera Madappa Cariappa, the 48-year old India's seniormost officer, to the post of the first Indian Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army on Jan. 15, 1949.

Post-Independence Growth and Reorganisation.—Inspite of the pace set to the armed forces reorganisation and Indianisation programme of 1946, on Aug. 15, 1947, Army Headquarters, India consisted of 150 officers and 563 other ranks, the strength increasing to 686 and 4202 respectively by August, 1948. This rate of growth was considered rather slow in a condition of national emergency. On the other hand it had already been decided that by Jan. 1949, 100 of the remaining 260 British officers in the Indian Army (with only 3 continuing in executive and advisory capacity, the rest in training establishments) were to leave India. Government of India therefore framed rules under the National Service (Temporary and Released Persons) Ordinance, 1948 calling on certain specified categories of persons released after Jan. 1, 1946 to register themselves for re-absorption in the Indian Army.

Government of India have also added a *Scientific Adviser* to the Headquarters Staff. This organisation is expected to recruit 200 scientists to constitute a board to provide "integration between scientific and military thought."

Among other important measures for the reorganisation and expansion of the Army are,—the creation of National Cadet Corps, a new Staff College at Wellington, the concentration of the armoured corps schools at Ahmednagar, the establishment of a mixed electrical and mechanical engineering school at Roorkee and the setting up of equipment purchase missions in the U.K. and U. S. A.

Three Commands —India has been divided into three zonal commands—Eastern, Southern and Western—for administrative and defence responsibilities with regard to each command under a General Officer Commanding.

INDIAN NAVY

The Royal Indian Navy traces its history from the formation in 1612 of the Honourable East India Company's Marine. Known in the early days of this century as the Royal Indian Marine, the Service was reorganised in the late 1920's on a combatant basis. In 1928 it hoisted the White Ensign for the first time and in 1934, after the passing of the Indian Navy (Discipline) Act, was redesignated the Royal Indian Navy.

The attainment of independence and a simultaneous partition of the country has had its impact on the Navy depleting it to $^2/_3$rd of its original number of vessels, and 3 of its most important training establishments being lost to Pakistan. But then the pre-partition Navy was designed, with a force of subsidiary vessels, to operate only in conjunction with the Royal Navy and the sea-going units allocated to the new Royal Indian Navy were—(1) 4 modern sloops (Kistna, Cauvery, Sutlej and Jumna), (2)) 2 frigates (Tir and Kukri), (3) 1 corvette (Assam), (4) 3 Bathursts (fleet mine-sweepers), (5) 9 Bangors (fleet minesweepers), (6)) 4 Bassets (trawlers), (7) 1 survey ship (investigator) and a few auxiliary vessels.

Growth After Indian Independence —The first significant step towards modernization was the acquisition of the 7000-ton Leander class Cruiser HMIS Delhi (formerly HMS Achilles) which reached Bombay on Sept. 15, 1948. RIN is also acquiring the 3 RN destroyers Rotherham (1750 tons), Redoubt (1705 tons) and Raider (1705 tons) which are expected in India by the middle of 1949. Another immediate addition to the RIN is going to be a tank-landing ship, capable of carrying a large number of tanks, vehicles and men to land them directly on beaches.

Immediate measures were also taken to ensure continuity in training by the establishment of alternative facilities in India to replace those lost to Pakistan. For higher and more technical aspects of training HMG have made available facilities in the RN establishments and ships in the

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U.K.: At present, most of the Naval training establishments are centred at Cochin, most important of which are the Signals School, the Anti-Submarine School and the Supply and Secretariat School. Besides, the Artificers Training centre is situated at Lonavela on the West Coast and the Electrical School continues to remain at Jamnagar. Owing to the proximity of a fine harbour for ships and a suitable aerodrome, Cochin is a unique site for naval schools requiring the co-operation of ships and aircraft. It has therefore been decided that a number of technical schools including a Gunnery and Torpedo School, an Anti-submarine School and an Electrical School would be erected at Cochin. Government have already acquired the services of Commodore Ellison of the RN, who with Headquarters at Cochin is to be in charge of all shore training under the general control of the Naval Headquarters. It may be mentioned in this connection that the need of immediate modernisation and reorganisation as an independent naval force has made the government continue to keep in active service a number of British officers. Complete indianisation of the RIN has not therefore been possible in the higher ranks and Rear-Admiral J. T. S. Hall shall continue to be the Flag Officer Commanding, and Commander-in-Chief.

INDIAN AIR FORCE

The Royal Indian Air Force had its origin on the recommendations of the Skeene Committee in 1926 and the subsequent passing, six years later, of the Indian Air Force Act by the Indian Legislature. In 1933, therefore, the first flight of Indian Air Force was formed with four Westland Wapiti aircraft. From these small beginnings the Air Force rapidly expanded by 1946 with a Service consisting of 8 Fighter and 2 Transport Squadrons with modern aircraft. Trained originally for Army Co-operation work, the Indian Air Force had its first operational experience over the difficult regions of the North-West Frontier. In 1941 it completely took over from the RAF the duty of policing over the tribal territory, which it so long only shared with the RAF. But it was during the Burma campaign in 1942 that it acquired its first experience and distinction in operations against a major air power. On March 12, 1945, His Majesty the King approved with pleasure the designation of 'Royal' as a prefix to the Indian Air Force in due recognition of the services rendered by it during the War. Soon after the independence of India, the RIAF set new feathers to its crown of glory in the magnificent task it did during the Kashmir and then the Hyderabad operations. In Kashmir, in particular, the RIAF demonstrated new heights of its skill and valour, comparable to the boldest air operations during World War II. But by the side of the RIAF exploits of flying over 17,000-feet high peaks of the snow-clad Himalayas in ordinary Dakota transport aircraft for dropping supplies, the much-boosted over-the-hump operations of the American pilots during World War II pale into insignficance.

Growth after Indian Independence—The inevitable division of the RIAF along with the division of the country left the Dominion of India with 7 Fighter Squadrons and 1 Transport Squadron. The Govt. of India had therefore to set itself immediately to the development of the air force. On Feb. 19 Air Headquarters, India, announced the formation of a Communication. Squadron of the RIAF. With an eye to equipping the RIAF with modern aircraft, an immediate formation of a Fighter Squadron of the high-speed jet air-craft has been decided upon. On Nov. 6, the first 3 jet-propelled De Haviland Vampire aircrafts had already landed in India. By the middle of 1948, the Govt. of India is understood to have decided to organise 12 Fighter Squadrons in 20 months and 15 Squadrons in 5 years.

Side by side with the plan of building a strong air force, a separate recruiting organisation manned by experienced officers was formed to step up recruitment. Proper training facilities were also introduced. The Initial Training Wing at Coimbatore, to which young men accepted for service are first sent for instruction, the Elementary Flying Training School at Jodhpur and the Advanced Flying School at Ambala, along with training schools for ground personnel at Bangalore and Madras, were expanded and a paratroop training school in place of the one lost to Pakistan was started. Besides selected RIAF officers are being sent to the U.K. and other countries for specialised studies; the Govt. of India plan is to raise 10 Squadrons with 14,000 officers in the immediate future. 70% of the flying strength would be kept on permanent basis, rest being given short service commissions for being drawn on in emergencies. Owing to scarcity of technical equipment, it has been decided for the time being to give 3-years' training to the Air Force Cadets instead of two years.

It may be mentioned in this connection that except for 7 technically experienced British Officers, the RIAF has been completely indianised. Among the much-needed officers is the present Commander-in-Chief RIAF, Air-Marshal Sir Thomas Elmhirst.

Fleet Air Arm—First steps have been taken to organise Fleet Air Arm for Royal Indian Navy. A batch of Indian Naval Officers are being sent to U. K. for training as naval pilots qualified to fly aircraft from carriers which will form nucleus of the Fleet Air Arm.

National Markings for RIAF Aircraft—New national markings for air-craft of the RIAF has been approved by the Government of India. These are to consist of the *Asoka Chakra* to be shown on the wings, and the fuselage, and the vertical *Tri-colour* flash on the fin. The Chakra of specified dimensions will be in navy blue and will be painted on the upper and lower sides of the wings in case of monoplane aircraft and on the upper side of the upper wing and the lower side of the lower wing in biplane aircraft. The Chakras are also to be painted in both sides of the fuselage just behind the trailing edge of the wings. The Tri-colour flash which is to be shown on the fin will be so painted that the saffron colour is towards the leading edge and the green on the trailing edge of the aircraft.

MISCELLANEOUS

Free India's New Military Awards—The details of new military awards are as follows:—

"*Param Vir Cakra*", the highest decoration for gallantry, will rank next only to the Victoria Cross and will be awarded for the highest form of bravery in the presence of the enemy.

It will be a replica of Asoka's wheel 1½ inches in diameter and will be made of brown gun steel. The ribbon will be plain saffron, also 1½ inches long, and when worn alone will carry in the centre a miniature replica of the medal.

Mahavir Chakra and *Vir Chakra*, the second and the third awards for gallantry, will rank next to the Distinguished Service Order and the Military Cross. They will be awarded for service in the presence of the enemy or under equivalent conditions.

Mahavir Chakra will be a five-pointed heraldic star, the edges of whose arms will rest on a silver ring with a diameter of 1½ inches. A replica in enamelled gold of Asoka's three lions will be superimposed at the centre. The ribbon, 1½ inches long, will represent six equal vertical stripes of navy blue, Air Force blue, Army Red, Air Force blue, and navy blue.

Vir Chakra will be a five-pointed heraldic star in silver with a surrounding ring and with a miniature replica of the Asoka wheel at the centre. Its ribbon—the same size as the other two—will consist of five vertical stripes of white, navy blue, red, Air Force blue and white.

Monetary benefits attaching to the three awards, for which commissioned officers will not be eligible, will be Rs. 50, Rs. 30 and Rs. 20 per month, respectively. Higher allowances will be admissible to junior commissioned officers who have won certain previous awards.

INDIAN STATES

The Paramount Power—The Indian States had no international recognition and were states only by sufference. The hereditary rulers of these states were under the suzerainty of the Crown or what was better known as the Paramount Power. The Paramount Power had not only complete control over the defence and foreign policy of the states, but also varying degrees of control on the internal affairs of the states. Indeed while on paper the limitation of the authority of the rulers over the internal administration of the states was determined by treaties, agreements and sanads supplemented by usage, the Paramount Power, which exercised its authority through the Viceroy or the Crown Representative had been found to have intervened not only in day to day administration but also in regard to the succession to the *gaddies* of the States. The history of the Indian States show beyond dispute that the Paramount Power kept the states and their rulers as subservient units for balancing the political future of India. But the Paramountcy which constituted both in principle and actual operation the imposition of the fiat of a foreign power on the states, had secured, one advantage, namely administrative co-ordination, throughout India particularly in matters relating to defence, foreign affairs, and communications.

The Cabinet Mission's Plan and H.M.G's Plan—But Cabinet Mission's plan announced—"Paramountcy can neither be retained by the British Crown nor transferred to the new Government." This theoretical independence is sought to confer on the 650 Rulers of the Indian States, created a problem of the utmost consequence to the stability of the Indian Union. It threatened to bespatter the country with a vast number of independent enclaves large and small. Be it said to the credit of H.M.G. that they had desired to avoid such a possibility, in view of which they had urged in the Cabinet Mission's Plan that the States should accede to the proposed Dominion. The plan recommended that the States were to retain all subjects and power other than those ceded to the Union, namely Foreign Affairs, Defence and Communication. And at the Constituent Assembly they were to have a number of seats at the rate of one per million population. But the British Government's recommendation was merely advisory and even that contained no indication of the role to be assigned to the people of the States. The H.M.G.'s plan of June 3, 1947 simply dittoed the above policy which announced that their policy towards the Indian States contained in the Cabinet Mission's Memorandum of May 12, 1946 remained unchanged. It was hoped by H.M.G that the States would join the one or the other Dominion as envisaged under the plan with the due respect to the geographical position.

The Indian Independence Act, 1947—Section 7 of the Act laid down in continuation of the June 3 Plan that with the transfer of power to the two Dominions of India and Pakistan on August 15, 1947, the suzerainity of the Crown over the Indian States would lapse and along with it would lapse all treaties and agreements in force at the date of the passing of the Act between His Majesty and the Rulers of Indian States, all functions exercisable by His Majesty on that day with respect to Indian States, all obligations of His Majesty existing on that date towards Indian States or the Rulers thereof, and all powers, rights, authority or jurisdiction exercisable by His Majesty on that date in or in relation to Indian States by treaties, grants, usage, sufference or otherwise.

Establishment of the States Department and States Ministry—The first phase before Indian Independence was the formation of the States Department of the Government of India to take over the functions of the Political Department which had worked under the Crown Representative. On July 5, 1947, *i.e.,* two weeks before the Indian Independence Bill became law, the Government of India announced the establishment of the States Ministry in place of States Department. It was needed to take up the matter of the States, as it was clear that with the lapse of Paramountcy all the responsibility regarding the relation with the States would have to be taken up by Government of India. On assuming the charge of the Ministry of States, Sardar Patel assured the Princes that it would not be his policy to conduct the new department with the States in any manner which savoured of the domination of one over the other; "if there would be any domination it would be that of our mutual interests and welfare."

Government of India's Attitude—The declared policy of the Government towards the States was well-defined and unambiguous. Though the Indian Constituent Assembly proclaimed Republican objective for the Union as a goal, the Government of India have never contemplated the extinction of the princely Order within the States. They have, on the contrary, only urged that the States should stabilise the existence on the basis of democracy and responsible government with the Princes as their constitutional heads, having their traditional personal rights and privileges guaranteed in so far as they are consistent with the good of the people.

But at the same time, whether it is a question of disputed accession as in Kashmir, Jungadh and Hyderabad or a question of integration or merger of the States concerned, Government of India have always in strict adherence to declared Congress policy, expressed their readiness to abide by the wishes of the people, in some cases to be expressed through a referendum. So with the passing of the Independence Act, all the States signed the Instrument of Accession except Kashmir, Junagadh and Hyderabad.

India and the States—Before Unification—Out of the total area enclosed with the territories of pre-Partition India, *i.e.*, 15, 81, 410 sq. miles, the Indian States covered an area of 7,15,964 sq. miles, which constituted about 45 per cent of the total Indian territories. In Post-Partition India, the area covered by the States geographically contiguous to India was reduced to 5,87,888 sq. miles being about 48 per cent of the total area of the Dominion of India, *viz.*, 12,20,099 sq. miles. The Kashmir States with a territory of 84,471 sq. miles and the Hyderabad State closely following it with a territory of 82,313 sq. miles constituted the largest territorial units amongst the States. There were 15 States which had territories of more than 10,000 sq. miles and 67 having territories ranging from 1,000 to 10,000 sq. miles. There were 202 States having each an area of less than 10 sq. miles. The total population of the States according to the census figures of 1941 was 9,31,89,233 constituting about 24 per cent of the total population of pre-Partition India, namely 38,89,97,955, after partition the total population of the dominion of India was reduced to 31,89,12,506 and of the States within the geographical orbit of the Indian Dominion to 8,88,084,34 changing the relative population ratio of the States from 24 per cent to 27 per cent.

The Process of Democratisation of States—The democratisation of States has been achieved by the following processes—integration of the State within an adjoining Province or the merging of its boundaries in a Union with a number of other States or administration taken over by the Centre. Democratisation alone would not be the remedy for the States where the units were too small to be capable of governing themselves or preserving law and order. The resources in material and the talent of the small states were so poor that an autonomous existence, however democratic in itself, would have solved on problems. The Government of India's criterion is that responsible government can be sustained only on the basis of efficient administration for which only about 20 States or groups of States could afford necessary resources. The present criterion of "Viable States" according to the Government of India is that it should have at least a population of about 10 lakhs *i.e.*, it should be entitled to return its individual representative to the Constituent Assembly.

The process of integration of States became very easy and rapid due to the following causes—(*a*) no rigid rule was allowed to interfere in fixing the privy purse of the rulers, (*b*) The leading princes have been selected to fill the posts of Rajpramukhs, (3) Rajpramukhs are to execute fresh Instruments of Accession on behalf of the Unions allowing Dominion Legislature to pass laws in respect of all the items in List I of the constitution and also conceding to it concurrent powers as in List III, thus placing the Unions on the same basis as the provinces except in the matter of taxation.

Struggle and Administrative Reforms in States

While August 15, 1947 marked the termination of the freedom struggle in what had been known as British India, struggle for responsible government within the States passed through an intense phase after that date.

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This struggle which was conducted in each State by its own people's organisation called either the State Congress or Praja Mandal or Praja Parishad always had full support of the Central Government, as long as it has remained non-violent and non-communal in character.

So the popular movement gathered momentum in the States towards the end of 1947 and gradually broke the resistance of some of the Princes in the matter of transferance of authority to the people. The small States were no match for the people and had soon to sue for peace. They had to accept the new power in the Centre and were ready to be moulded out of shape into any form. So came the mergers with provinces, with the Centre and with other states to form unions. In all these cases, the administrative setup changed completely with more or less doses of democracy. The states which have merged with provinces are fast coming to have similar administration as does exist in the provinces. While covenants of the States Unions provide for the establishment of democratic government, the conference of the Rajpramukhs and Prime Ministers of States Unions, held during July 17-18, 1948, decided to have in each union (1) a central government with a central secretariat, an independent judiciary, an independent Auditor-General, a Revenue Board and an independent Public Service Commission, and (2) to reallocate the seats of the connected states to the Indian Constituent Assembly with 100% popular representation. Indian States Financial Enquiry Committee has been appointed in October, 1948 for the rehabilitation of the finances of the Unions and States and also for integrating their finances with that of the Government of India. The centrally-administered States are being governed by Chief Commissioners with the aid of popular advisers. The States which are continuing to have individual administration have already had to issue charters of freedom even in 1947 establishing varying amount of democracy in administration. The continued vigilance of the people and their pressure for complete responsible government have borne fruit in majority of these States. In 1948 Baroda and Jodhpur have had to follow the path laid down by Mysore, Travancore and other states. In some other states, again, like Bhopal, the Rulers have been trying to foist their own people, most of whom have no popular backing, on the popular representatives in the formation of Ministries, but even then they had to sucumb in the end.

A.—MERGER WITH PROVINCES

1. **Eastern States of Orissa's integration with Orissa**—It was in Orissa that the process of the integration of small States started. Rulers of the twenty-three states of the Eastern States of Orissa occupying 24,000 sq. miles with a population of more than 40 lakhs and an annual revenue of about 99 lakhs signed up merger agreement on Dec. 14-15, 1947, so that they were integrated with Orissa which province took up the administration on Jan. 1, 1948. The State of Mayurbhanj, one of the Eastern States with a population of about 990,977 with an area of 4,034 sq. miles and an average annual revenue of about Rs. 34·00 lakhs remained a viable unit up to the end of 1948, but on Jan. 2, 1949 the State has merged with Orissa.

2. **States of Seraikella and Kharswan's integration with Bihar**—These two states of the Eastern States of Orissa which were provisionally handed

over to Orissa, were finally integrated with Bihar on May 18, 1948 in accordance with the findings of the Special Tribunal appointed by the Government of India for the purpose.

3. **Chhatisgarh States' integration with C.P. and Berar**—14 Chhattishgarh States comprising an area of 32,000 sq. miles merged with C.P. and Berar on Jan. 1, 1948.

4. **State of Makrai's integration with C.P. and Berar**—The States of Central India with 151 sq. miles merged with C.P. and Berar on Feb. 1, 1949.

5. **Baganapalle's and Puddukkottai's integration with Madras**—Baganapalle (259 sq. m.) and Puddukkottai merged with Madras on Feb. 22 and March 3, 1948.

6. **Loharu, Pataudi and Dujana's integration with East Punjab**—Laharu (226 sq. m.) and Pataudi (53 sq. m.) and Dujana merged with East Punjab.

7. **Deccan States integration with Bombay**—Sixteen Deccan States except Kolhapur, a viable unit decided to integrate with the Province of Bombay. The sixteen States comprised a territory of 7,651 sq. miles with a population of 17 lakhs and an annual revenue of more than Rs. 142 lakhs.

Following are the sixteen states—Sangli, Miraj (senior), Miraj (junior), Jath, Savnur, Mudhol, Jamkhandi, Ramdurg, Kurundwad (senior), Kurundwad (junior), Aundh, Phaltan, Bhor, Sawantwadi, Akalkot and Wadi.

8. **Eighteen Jurisdictional States of Gujerat and petty principalities' integration with Bombay**—18 jurisdictional States of Gujerat (all except Baroda) and a number of petty principalities covering in all an area of more than 19,000 sq. miles with a population of more than 27 lakhs and an annual revenue of Rs. 165 lakhs merged into the province of Bombay. Following are the names of these States: Balasiner, Bansda, Baria, Cambay, Chhota Udepur, Dharampur, Jawhar, Lunawada, Rajpipla, Sachin, Sant, Idar, Radhanpur, Vijaynagar Danta, Palanpur, Jumugodha and Sirohi.

9. **Sirohi State's integration with Bombay**—Sirohi State a small state, south-west of Udaipur, area 2,000 sq. miles, population 234,000 has been merged in the Bombay Presidency.

10. **Mayurbhanj State's integration with Orissa**—The State which did not merge when 23 Eastern States merged with Orissa integrated with Orissa on Jan. 2, 1949.

B.—UNION OF STATES

"Union" or 'United State' constitutes a species of statehood in which a number of States generally contiguous to each other are merged into a new political unit and administrative entity with the ruler of one of the merging units as Ruler-President (Rajpramukh). The covenent among the rulers of the merging States provides for (a) setting up of an Interim Ministry to advise the Rajpramukh (2) summoning of a Constituent Assembly to frame the ultimate constitution of the Union. The Union, so formed constitutes in each case a new composite state with a democratic constitution into which the merging States lose their separate identity except their rulers are guaranteed the essential rights and privileges of their order, including privy purse.

Privy Purse for rulers whose States had merged or had been integrated into unions, are as follows—As a general rule privy purse were calculated on the basis of 15 p.c. on the first rupees one lakh of the revenue of the State; 10 p.c. on the next Rs. 4 lakhs and 7½ on the balance, subject to a minimum of Rs. 10 lakhs. But there are exceptions in some cases and are applied for the life time of the present rulers.

1. **Saurashtra**—was inaugurated on 15th February 1948. The States of Kathiawar comprised 13 Salute States, 107 limited jurisdictional States and 329 non-jurisdictional States and talukas making up 449 units in all, but cut up into 860 different areas scattered over a total area of nearly 31,885 sq. miles,popultion being 3½ to 4 millions and the total annual revenue of Rs. 8 crores. The guaranteed privy purse of the Rulers amounts to about Rs. 67 lakhs. The Junagadh State, the Moslem Ruler of which fled to Pakistan in 1948 in the face of popular upheaval due to his insistence for acceding to Pakistan was under the administration of the Government of India, has now integrated with Saurashtra on 20th Jan. 1949.

Rajpramukh—Jam Saheb of Nawanagar
Prime Minister—Sri U. N. Dhebar.

2. **Matsya Union**—was formed on the principle of United State by the Union of four States of Alwar, Bharatpur, Dholpur and Karauli. The covenant was signed on Feb. 27 and the Union was established on March 15, 1948. The Matsya Union has a territory of nearly 7,600 sq. miles with a population of over 18 lakhs and nearly two crores of annual revenue. *Capital*—Bharatpur.

Rajpramukh—Maharajah of Dholpur
Uparajpramukh—Maharaja of Alwar.
Prime Minister—Sri Sobharam.

3. **United State of Rajasthan**—was inaugurated at first on March 25, 1948 with *Kotah, Banswara, Bundi, Dungarpur, Jhalawar, Kishengarh, Pratapgarh, Shahpur* and *Tonk* and was reconstituted on April 18, 1948 by the integration of Mewar. Its total area is 29,977 sq. miles with 42·6 lakhs of population and nearly 317 lakhs of annual revenue, of which Udaipur State alone consists of 13,170 sq. miles with a population of about 19·3 lakhs and annual revenue exceeding Rs. 125·28 lakhs. The total amount of privy purse to the rulers has been set down at about Rs. 30·5 lakhs. The covenant provides that the first Rajpramukh, Maharaja of Udaipur will hold the office for life time.

Rajasthan will be converted into greater Rajasthan in April 1949 for which covenant has been signed. Greater Rajasthan will consist of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner, Jaisalmer and the States of the present Rajasthan. It will have an area of 120,868 sq. miles and a population of over 12 millions with a total revenue of over 11 crores.

Rajpramukh—Maharaja of Udaipur.
Prime Minister—Sri Manek Lal Varma.

4. **Vindya Pradesh**—the Union of 35 States comprising the States of Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand was inaugurated at Rewa on April 4, 1948. The total area covered by the Union is 24,610 sq. miles. Its population is nearly 36 lakhs and its annual revenue is about 2½ crores out of this, the State of Rewa has alone an area of 13,000 sq. miles with a population

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of nearly 18 lakhs and an annual revenue of about Rs. 65 lakhs. The total privy purse of the rulers amounted to Rs. 23 lakhs.

Rajpramukh—Maharaja of Rewa.
Uparajpramukh—Maharaja of Panna.
Prime Minister—Sri K. P. Seksena.

5. **Malwa Union or Madhya Bharat**—is one of the biggest Unions in India. It has an area of 46,273 sq. miles with a population of 71·50 lakhs and an annual revenue of about Rs. 8 crores. The area covered contains the remnants of the old Marhatta Empire in Hindustan and Malwa. Twenty Central Indian States including the premier States of Gwalior and Indore signed up a covenant on April 22, 1948 to form Madhya-Bharat Union. The Council of Rulers in this Union is to consist of 17 rulers and is to have a President, a Senior Vice-President and two Junior Vice-Presidents—all elected for five years. The Rulers of Gwalior, Indore, Dhar and Khilchipur have been elected the first President, Senior Vice-President and Junior Vice-Presidents respectively, with the proviso that the present President and Senior Vice-President would hold office for life. The Rulers of Gwalior and Indore were also granted an exception to the general rule of the computation of the privy purse of Rulers in that they have been allowed to draw Rs. 25 lakhs and Rs. 15 lakhs respectively as annuity. The State was inaugurated on May 28, 1948.

Rajpramukh—Maharaja of Gwalior.
Uparajpramukh—Maharaja of Indore.
Prime Minister—Sri Liladhar Joshi.

6. **Patiala and East Punjab States Union**—The last States Union that came into being was that of eight East Punjab States with a total area of about 10,119 sq. miles, a population of 34·24 lakhs and an average annual revenue of about Rs. 500·00 lakhs. The State came into operation on July 15, 1948 with a six member Council of Rulers, of which the Rulers of Patiala and Kapurtala being first elected President and Vice-President respectively. They shall hold office during life time, the tenure in subsequent cases being five years in each case. The Union comprises Patiala, Kapurtala, Nabha, Faridkot, Jind, Malerkotla, Nalagrah and Kalsia.

Rajpramukh—Maharaja of Patiala.
Uparajpramukh—Maharaja of Kapurtala.
Prime Minister—Sardar Gian Singh.

C.—STATES OR UNIONS ADMINISTERED BY THE CENTRE

1. **Himachal Pradesh**—now an administrative Unit from 15th April 1948, comprising all East Punjab Hill States (except Terhi Garwal) is a centrally administered province, now under a Chief Commissioner pending the appointment of a Lt.-Governor contemplated under the future constitution of the Indian Union. This Centrally administered province consists of 24 Hill States with an area of about 11,000 sq. miles and has a homeogeneous population, numbering nearly one million, consisting predominantly of descendents of Rajputs and other Hindus who sought these Himalaya retreats in the 14th and 15th centuries.

Chief Commissioner—N. C. Mehta.

2. **Bilaspur**—One of the States of the Eastern Punjab Hill group with a population of 110336 and an area of about 453 sq. miles and aver-

age annual revenue of about Rs 6·48 lakhs, has been taken over as a separate centrally administered area in view of its importance in connection with the Bakhra Dam project in East Punjab.

3. **Cutch and Jaisalmer**—Two States with frontiers with West Pakistan and very important in relation to defence and requiring much development are the Western India State of Kutch and West Rajputana State of Jaisalmer. The Ruler of Cutch signed the agreement on May 4 to cede full and exclusive authority in relation to the administration of the State to the Government of India. The State therefore has been directly brought under the administration of the Government of India with a Chief Commissioner and an Advisory Council. The State has an area of 8,461 sq. miles and an average annual revenue of Rs. 80·00 lakhs. Similarly the administration of Jaisalmer with an area of about 16,065 sq. miles with a population of 93,246 and an average annual revenue of about Rs. 7·5 lakhs has been taken over by the Government of India.

D. VIABLE STATES

The following are the 'Viable' States which have kept their separate entity unaffected by the merger or integration but have acceded to the Indian Union in respect of Defence, External Affairs and Communications—Hyderabad, Kolhapur, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Mysore, Bhopal, Travancore, Bikaner, Cochin, Jaipur and Jodhpur. Of these, Bikaner, Jaipur, Jaisalmer are joining very shortly Rajasthan Union making it a Greater Rajasthan or Maharajasthan State.

E. NON-VIABLE STATES NOT YET MERGED OR INTEGRATED

The non-viable States still to be integrated or merged are Tehri-Garhwal, Banaras and Rampur (U. P.), Cooch Bihar, Tripura, Manipur and Khasi Hill States (Assam).

F. FURTHER INTEGRATION OF STATES

It was announced in February, 1949, that Baroda and Kolhapur will merge with Bombay. While a covenant has been signed on Feb. 16, 1949 for the inclusion of Bikaner, Jaipur, Jodhpur and Jaisalmer into the Rajasthan Union making it Greater Rajasthan or Maharajasthan.

LIST OF PRESENT UNITS OF STATES

A. *Viable States*

	Area in sq. miles	*Pop. in lakhs*	*Revenue in lakhs of Rs. (Approx.)*
*1. Baroda	8,235	2,855,010	434·26
2. Hyderabad	82,313	16,338,534	1600·00
3. Kashmir & Jammu ..	84,471	4,021,616	495·51
4. Mysore	29,458	7,329,140	1010·76
5. Bhopal .. .	6,921	785,322	80·00
*6. Kolhapur	3,219	1,092,046	130·94
7. Travancore	7,662	6,070,018	532·00
8. Cochin	1,493	1,422,875	217·00

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* These two States have now merged with Bombay.

B. *States' Unions.*

		No. of States	Area sq. miles	Population in lakhs	(Approx.) Annual Revenue Rs. lakhs
1.	Saurashtra	218	35,902	43·38	950·00
2.	Matsya	4	7,536	18·38	183·06
3.	Vindhya Pradesh	35	24,610	35·69	243·30
*4.	Rajasthan	10	29,977	42·61	316·67
5.	Madhya Bharat	20	46,273	71·50	776·42
6.	Patiala & E. Punjab StatesUnion	8	10,119	34·24	500·00

C. *States merged into Provinces.*

	Province	No. of States	Area in sq. miles	Population in lakhs	Revenue in lakh (Approx.)
1.	Orissa (including Mayurbhanj)	24	27,671	50·36	132·74
2.	C. P. & Berar	15	31,749	28·34	88·31
3.	Bihar	2	623	2·08	6·45
4.	Madras	4	1,602	4·99	34·00
5.	East Punjab	3	370	·80	10·38
6.	Bombay	174	26,951	43·67	307·15

D. *Centrally administered States.*

1.	Himachal Pradesh	21	10,600	9·36	84·56
2.	Kutch	1	8,461	5·01	80·00
3.	Jaisalmer	1	15,980	·93	7·50

E. *Non-viable States as yet unaffected.*

1.	Benares	1	866	4·51	22·90
2.	Coochbehar	1	1,318	6·41	100·00
3.	Khasi States	15	3,788	2·14	Not available
4.	Manipur	1	8,620	5·12	29·19
5.	Rampur	1	894	4·77	80·00
6.	Tehri-Garhwal	1	4,516	3·97	26·94
7.	Tripura	1	4,116	5·13	54·06

DIARY OF IMPORTANT EVENTS RELATED TO STATES

June 3, 1947—His Majesty's Government's statement abrogating Paramountcy.

July 5, 1947—The States Department established. Sardar Patel issues statement defining the policy of the Government of India: —no domination, but ultimate paramountcy of people's interests.

July 25, 1947—H. E. Lord Mountbatten addresses a special meeting of the Chamber of Princes: advises the non-acceding Rulers to accede to the appropriate Dominion stating "You cannot run away from the Dominion Government any more than you can run away from the subjects for whose welfare you are responsible."

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* Greater Rajasthan will be formed shortly by the inclusion of Jodhpur, Jaipur, Bikaner and Jaisalmer.

August 15, 1947—All States in Indian territory except Hyderabad, Junagadh and Kashmir have acceded to the Indian Dominion.

October 27, 1947—Kashmir accedes to the Indian Dominion.

November 9, 1947—The administration of Junagadh taken over by the Indian Government.

Nov. 14, 1947—Standstill agreement with Hyderabad signed.

January 1, 1948—23 Orissa States merge with Orissa.

January 1, 1948—Fourteen Chhattisgarh States in the Central Provinces merge with C.P.

February 1, 1948—Makrai merges with Central Provinces.

February 15, 1948—The United States of Kathiawar (*Saurashtra*) comprising 449 units inaugurated.

February 22, 1948—Banganapalle merges with Madras.

February 23, 1948—Loharu and Pataudi merge with East Punjab.

February 29, 1948—Junagadh decides by 190,779 votes to 91 to join the Indian Union.

March 3, 1948—Puddukottai merges with Madras.

March 8, 1948—The Government of Bombay takes over administration of 16 Deccan States.

March 17, 1948—The United States of Matsya inaugurated.

March 25, 1948—Rajasthan Union inaugurated at first at Kotah with with Kotah, Banswara, Shahpura, Bundi, Dungarpur, Jhalawar, Kishengarh, Partapgarh and Tonk.

April 4, 1948—The United States of Vindhya Pradesh inaugurated.

April 15, 1948—Twenty-four Punjab Hill States form a Union known as Himachal Pradesh to be administered by the Centre.

April 18, 1948—Pandit Nehru inaugurated Rajasthan Union in its reconstituted form with Udaipur as a new member.

April 22, 1948—The draft Covenant for the Malwa Union signed by the rulers of Gwalior, Indore and other Central Indian States.

May 5, 1948—Covenant of Patiala and East Punjab States signed.

May 18, 1948—Seraikella and Kharswan States awarded to Bihar.

May 28, 1948—The Malwa Union or *Madhya Bharat* inaugurated by Pandit Nehru.

June 1, 1948—The administration of Kutch taken over by the Indian Dominion.

June 10, 1948—Eighteen jurisdictional Gujerat States (except Baroda) and a number of petty principalities, merged with the Bombay Province.

July 15, 1948—The United State of Patiala and East Punjab inaugurated.

July 17, 1948—Six Rajpramukhs, the Chief Commissioners of Himachal Pradesh and Ajmer-Merwara and Premiers of Unions of States and Premiers of the Provinces, meet to discuss matters relating to the regrouping of States for the purpose of their representation in the Constituent Assembly.

July 18, 1948—Rajpramukhs and Chiefs of States Forces meet Sardar Patel to discuss the strength of States's Forces, and their organisation.

August 5, 1948—Manavadar and Mangrol taken over by Saurashtra.

January 20, 1949—Junagadh State integrates with Saurashtra.

Feb. 16, 1949—Reconstruction of Rajasthan States is finalised by the signing of a covenant and by joining of four more States, Jaipur, Jaisalmer Jodhpur and Bikaner.

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Prime Ministers of some Indian States

Udaipur—Sir S. V. Ramaswami.
Travancore—T. K. Narayana Pillai.
Mysore—T. K. Narayana Pillai.
Baroda—Dr. Jivraj Mehta.
Cochin—T. K. Nair.
Jaipur—Hiralal Sastri.
Hyderabad—Lt.-Gen. J. N. Chaudhury (*Military Governor*).
Rampur—B. H. Zaidi.
Kashmir—Sheikh Md-Abdullah.
Tripura—B. K. Acharya.
Bhopal—Chatunarayan Malaviya.
Jodhpur—Jainarain Vyas.

REPORT ON HYDERABAD AND KASHMIR

A. **Hyderabad**—After months of tussle on the issue of independence, the Nizam of Hyderabad scored a hit when the demand of the Nizam for the withdrawal of the Indian forces from the territory of the state was accepted by the Government of India in the one-year Standstill Agreement of Nov. 29, 1947. For thenceforward illicit entry of arms into Hyderabad began. As early as Dec. 30, 1947 Government of India intercepted a plane carrying arms from Pakistan to Hyderabad. That Pakistan continued to supply arms and ammunition to Hyderabad was conclusively proved by the Government of India's communique of Dec. 2, 1948 after the successful end of the Hyderabad campaign by the Indian Army, wherein it was declared that during the campaign and after that a huge amount of arms and ammunition bearing Pakistan marks was surrendered to the Indian Army. Another supply base for arms and ammunition to Hyderabad was the Portugese territory of Goa. This latter base of gun-running activity was used by Mr. Frederick Sidney Cotton, an Australia-born ace-pilot of Britain. The activity of such international gun-runners helped the Nizam and his Government to equip the State forces and the communal army of the Razakars. As disclosed by Sardar Patel in the Dominion Legislatire on the 28th Aug. 1948, about 18,000 Indian Muslims joined the Nizam's forces after the Standstill Agreement and they were only a part of about 8 lakhs of people who crossed into Hyderabad in the guise of refugees and many of whom joined the Razakar organisation. Building up his armed might, therefore, was one of the Nizam's immediate objectives after the signing of the Standstill Agreement for one year.

Another objective of the Nizam during this breathing time was to make an international publicity of his case. Although Pakistan could naturally be expected by the Nizam to help him, Nizam placed huge sums of money for buying the help of Pakistan officials, as was discovered after the end of the Hyderabad campaign by the Government of India. This was in addition to the handing over to Pakistan Rs. 20 crores worth of Reserve Bank of India securities held by the Nizam and that as a loan during a critical stage in Pakistan's financial position. In the affair of this publicity again the Nizam utilised his utmost the unusual scope granted to him by the Government of India in having an Agent-General at London.

All these and the Nizam's firman issuing new currency were viewed by the Government of India as clear and distinct violations of the Standstill Agreement. Besides by Aug. 10, 1948, the Razakars made 197 raids on Indian Union territory killing 73 persons, injuring 107 others, abducting 41 people and involving a loss of Rs. 9 lakhs worth of property.

On the other hand, the internal administration of Hyderabad was not changed for the better after the 1-year agreement. It may be remembered that while announcing the conclusion of the agreement on Nov. 29, 1947, Sardar Patel had declared that on the final accession of the State to India, the will of the people must prevail. Although the Nizam had announced the policy of forming a popular interim Ministry, the terms of Mir Laik Ali, one time member of the Pakistan delegation to the United Nations and then the Prime Minister-designate of Hyderabad, were such that Swami Ramanand Tirth, the leader of the State Congress and the avowed leader of the majority of the people, found them unacceptable. So Mir Laik Ali formed a ministry out of the all-time advisers of the Nizam and a splinter group of renegade State Congress members. So when the State Congress announced its poilcy of continuing and intensifying the struggle against the communal autocracy in the form of non-cooperation and-no-tax campaign, the State Congress leaders were soon clamped into prison. But even without them the popular fury slowly mounted to such a pitch that village after village in the outlying districts began to declare independence. In answer, the Nizam's forces aided by the armed Razakars raided, burnt and pillaged hundreds of villages, killed numberless persons and abducted and even raped womenfolk. This was too much even for the renegade State Congress members and the independent Hindu members of Hyderabad ministry. So Mr. G. Ramachari, the Minister for Agriculture and Rural Reconstruction, tendered resignation in the last week of January, 1948, and Mr. J. V. Joshi, the Commerce and Industries Minister, resigned on July 23. Similarly the Minister for Public Health, Mr. Malikarjunappa, resigned on Aug. 10. Meanwhile Syed Kasim Razvi, the Razakar chief and mouth-piece of Hyderabad policy went on rattling his armour.

While on the one side the Razakar Chief went on threatening India with further troubles if the Razakars were made its enemies, the Government of Nizam continued to send delegations every month to make a final settlement with India. The Nizam did most probably hope to force India come to an agreement which would allow him the fullest possible authority to do what he pleased in his State. The Government of India, however, stuck to the original demand of accession to India and responsible government in the State. It appeared at a time that perhaps this 'shuttlecock' delegation really meant business. But draft agreements came always to be negatived when the delegation went to Hyderabad to have the final approval of the Nizam. To put a little pressure on the Nizam, who refused to disband the Razakars, the Government of India decided to blockade Hyderabad. In the first week of June, 1948 the Government of India, it is found, yielded a little and decided as it later came out to give a seal of permanency to the Standstill Agreement as it existed with an added provision for the limitation of regular and irregular forces of the State to 20,000 and 8,000 respectively. While agreeing to this in place of complete accession, the Government of India only demanded that a plebscite under impartial observation be taken to decide the future of the State and responsible government be established in the State in 1949. On the failure of the Nizam to approve this agreement, Government of India withdrew the proposals and decided to tighten the blockade, hit the Razakars back into Hyderabad in case of any incursion into India and take such measures as would make the Nizam's government realise that India could, if she wanted bring Hyderabad government to a complete collapse.

On June 25 the Hyderabad banks started to refuse to give demand draft on Indian Banks. The Government of India then promulgated a series of ordinances, putting a stop to all monetary transactions of Hyderabad with India and the outside world. Besides, the Reserve Bank of India not only banned export of gold and jewellery to Hyderabad but also blockaded all payments to Hyderabad citizens. Feeling now that India would sooner or later achieve her objective if such state of affairs continued, the Nizam canvassed for assistance in making an appeal to the U. N. Britain not only said 'no' to the proposal and advised the Nizam to come to terms with the Government of India but also asked the British officers in the Nizam's army to resign. This was in the first week of August, 1948 when the Government of India published a White Paper on Hyderabad where pointing the orgies of misrule in the State, the Government of India demanded accession and democratisation as the only way for the existence of the Nizam. This naturally caused a great flutter in the Hyderabad circles and with the assistance of Pakistan Syria sponsoring Hyderabad's application to the U.N. on a charge against India of violation of the Standstill Agreement.

While the Government of India took the stand that this was a purely domestic issue as the Nizam did never have during the history of India and of the Asaf Jahi dynasty an iota of an approach to independence, Pandit Nehru made the last call to Hyderabad for peace. In this call, Government of India demanded the disbanding of the Razakars and the return of the Indian Army to Secunderabad for 'restoring order in the State.' Pandit Nehru declared on September 10, if refused, 'we shall march into Hyderabad.' Solicitous of Hyderabad independence, the Pakistan Foreign Minister warned India against any violent move against Hyderabad. In the morning of the 13th Sept. however, the Indian Army marched into Hyderabad from 4 directions. The U.N. decided to hear Hyderabad case in the Security Council meeting of Sept. 16. The Nizam however surrendered on the next day with an undertaking to ban the Razakar, dismiss the Ministry, release the State Congress leaders and withdraw the Hyderabad appeal from the Security Council. All these undertakings were immediately fulfilled, while after much discussion the Security Council decided on Dec. 2 to declare the Hyderabad incident 'as closed'. The whole operation, it was declared by the Government of India cost 10 lives in the Indian Army, while 600 States forces and 1500 Razakars were killed and 15,000 Rajakars were injured.

In the meanwhile the Government of India appointed Mr. D. S. Bakhle as Chief Civil Administrator, Mr. D. R. Pradhan as the Additional Chief Civil Administrator, Mr. Patri as the I.G. of Police and 8 Collectors for the 8 districts of Hyderabad under the Military-Governor Major-General J. N. Chaudhuri. Kasim Razvi and the members of the Hyderabad Cabinet were arrested and the assets of 76 persons were freezed by the Military Government. The efforts of the Military Government were immediately directed towards the establishment of law and order throughout the State. Before the expiry of the Standstill Agreement, the Nizam executed a letter of authority to vest the Government of India with defence, communications and foreign affairs, until according to the Government of India's declaration to the Security Council a plebiscite was held in Hyderabad to decide the future of the State in its relation to India and a Constituent Assembly decide the future administration of the State.

B. **Kashmir**—After 15th August 1947, the State of Jammu and Kashmir signed a Standstill Agreement with Pakistan, but no agreement was entered with India up to the frontier tribesmen's attack on the State in October 1947. As soon as the standstill agreement was signed, Pakistan began to put undue pressure on Kashmir for acceding to Pakistan. At the Maharaja of Kashmir was delaying to sign the Instrument of Accession, Pakistan tried to coerce Kashmir by economic blocade. Two main routes to Kashmir were sealed up, bringing three-fourths of Kashmir's trade with outside world to a standstill, Kashmir's railway leading to Pakistan was closed. Essential commodities already paid for were frozen. All this coercion did not bring Kashmir to Pakistan side. Hence the plan to invade Kashmir was finalised by Pakistan.

So on October 22, 1947 frontier tribesmen were directed towards Kashmir through N.W.F. Province and West Punjab whose governments supplied the raiders with transport, arms and everything. These hordes swooped down upon Kashmir, burning, looting, raping and abducting all the way until they came upon the very gates of Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir.

At this critical juncture, the Kashmir government sent S.O.S. on 24th October, 1947 to Indian Government for military help offering to accede to Indian Union at once. Government of India accepted the accession of Kashmir as temporary pending the final plebiscite of the Kashmiris. Indian troops were sent by air on October 26 and Sheik Muhammad Abdullah and his associates of the National Conference were released. Sheik Abdullah was put at the head of the emergency administration who atonce rallied 10,000 volunteers. The Indian troops sent out to check the advance of the raiders and to drive them back to Pakistan territories, were singularly successful in stemming the tide. Srinagar was saved from its immediate fall and enemy was thrown back out of his line.

But an extension of the conflict was threatening and in order to avert it, if possible the Government of India decided to refer the situation to the United Nations. By a letter dated 1st January, 1948, the Government of India drew the Security Council's attention under Article 35 of the charter to the situation in Jammu and Kashmir. Representatives of India and Pakistan were, in pursuance of Article 3 of the charter, invited to participate in the discussions without a vote. On the 17th January, the Council adopted a resolution urging India and Pakistan to take all measures to improve the situation and refrain from making statements likely to aggravate it. A suitable reply was sent to this by Government of India on Jan. 19. Another resolution, adopted on the 20th January, set up a Commission of three members to carry out such instructions as the Council might issue from time to time. Pursuant to this resolution India nominated Czechoslovakia as a member of the Commission. (The strength of the Commission was subsequently increased to five).

As a result of informal talks some draft proposals were formulated by the President and were laid before the Council on the 6th February. Some

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of them were fundamentally at variance with the submissions and suggestions that have been put forward on behalf of India. The Government of India, therefore, considered it desirable to discuss the whole position with Mr. N. Gopalaswamy Ayyangar and the other members of the Indian Delegation before determining their attitude to the draft proposals. The discussion of the Kashmir situation was thereupon adjourned in order to enable the Indian delegation to return to New Delhi for consultations.

In March the Indian Delegation returned to New York and the debate on Kashmir was resumed. The draft was eventually cast in the form of a resolution sponsored jointly by Belgium, Canada, China, Columbia, the United Kingdom and the United States. This joint resolution was passed by the Security Council on the 21st April notwithstanding the objections raised by the Indian Delegation. The adoption of the resolution evoked a reply from the Government of India expressing their regret, in the form of a letter addressed to the President of the Security Council on the 5th May.

Another resolution adopted by the Security Council on the 3rd June, authorized the Commission to proceed to the area of dispute, and "further to study and report to the Security Council when it considers appropriate, on the matters raised" in the Pakistan Foreign Minister's letter to the President on the 15th January. These matters related to Junagadh and the charge of genocide, levelled by Pakistan against India.

In reply to Government of India's protest against this enlargement to the Commission's activities, an assurance was received from the President of the Security Council. Subsequently the Commission arrived in Delhi on July 10, 1948. Following its arrival, the Commission held consultations with high officials of the Government of India, and proceeded to Karachi on 31st July.

However prolonged for 14 weary months, the conflict between India and Pakistan ceased from 1st January 1949 when 'cease fire' order was issued from both sides in the battle front. It was explained by the Government of India that the U.N. Commission's new proposals for a plebiscite in Jammu and Kashmir having been accepted by both countries, there was no point in continuing hostilities till a final settlement by the Commission.

Details of the proposals for holding "a free and impartial plebiscite" in Kashmir, formulated by the U. N. Commission for India and Pakistan and accepted by the Governments of both Dominions, were released at Lake Success on 6th Jan. 1949.

The main features of the proposals, which are supplementary to the Commission's resolution of Aug. 13 last, are:—

1. The appointment of a Plebiscite Administrator who shall be a personality of high international standing and commanding general confidence.

2. After the implementation of the first two parts of the August resolution and when the Commission is satisfied that peaceful conditions have been restored in the State, the Commission will determine, in consultation with the Government of India, the final disposal of Indian and State Armed Forces with due regard to the security of State and the freedom of plebiscite.

3. The resolution envisages the appointment of two sub-commissions composed of nominees of India and Pakistan respectively to facilitate the repatriation of citizens of the State who had left on account of disturbances.

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The Political and Economic Situation—It may be remembered that the Maharaja of Kashmir had fled from Srinagar at the very beginning of the raid and no administration so to say functioned before Sheikh Abdullah took up the Emergency Administration. In spite of *de facto* collapse, however, the Maharaja still hesitated for some months on the point of a complete transfer of power to the accredited leaders of the people. In March, 1948, the Maharaja came down to proclaim Sheikh Abdullah as the Prime Minister of an Interim Cabinet which is to convene a national assembly in the State of Jammu and Kashmir on the basis of adult suffrage. The major task which confronted Sheikh Abdullah's government were to give relief to thousands of refugees treking from areas under the raiders, securing law and order throughout the State and reopening normal channels of trade. In all these he had the complete support from the Government of India who not only supplied all the essential requirements of the State but also improved the road communication between the State and India. Sheikh Abdullah's government had also to take up urgent reforms in the economic and political affairs of the state. For one thing, in spite of the State Ministry's rules to the contrary, the privy purse of the Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir has been cut to the figure of Rs. 40,000.

On the matter of agrarian and tenancy reforms, the Kashmir Government has abolished the Jagirdari system, both cash assignment and jurisdictional and all non-agricultural lands granted to Jagirdars have already reverted to the State. No landlord holding more than 12½ acres of land can recover more than ¼ of Rabi crops or none-third of Khushki (dry) crops from tenants. No fodder will go to the landlord who does not provide all tools and requirements to the tenants. All ejectment suits against tenants have been stayed for one year with a view to granting immediate relief to tenant-farmers. Moratorium has also been placed on all non-commercial debts. For the resuscitation of trade and industry, an emergency Trade Union has been established by the Government with a grant of Rs. 1 lakh as loan, emporia have been established at Srinagar, Simla, Bombay and New Delhi. On the question of education, the government has taken a great stride with the establishment of the University of Jammu and Kashmir on Nov. 2, 1948. Before that a number of primary and secondary schools have been established. The government has established two radio stations at Srinagar and Jammu and have established community listening centres.

THE LANGUAGES

Problem of Indian Languages—This diversity of language in India is set as a bar to a common Indian national unity. But this oft-quoted theory has no practical basis, because it has been clearly demonstrated in the case of many countries, such as England, Switzerland, France, Spain, Soviet Russia, China, Mexico, etc., that multiplicity of language is no bar to nationhood. In England alone, we have English, Welsh, Gaelic, besides dailects of these. Moreover many of the so-called Indian languages are mere small tribal speeches such as those belonging to the Tibeto-Chinese family found only on the northern and north-eastern borders of India, and spoken of by less than one per cent. of the entire population of India; there are some insignificant languages which do not really belong to India.

According to official estimate there are 225 languages current in India. Bengali is spoken by 92 per cent. of the population of West and East Bengal. In Central Provinces, Hindi prevails in the north, while Marhati predominate in the west, centre and Berar. People of Madras speak Dravidian languages—namely Tamil in the south, Telugu in the north and the Malayalam in the West Coast. Malayalam is the language of the Indian States of Travancore, Cochin and Malabar districts. Hindi or Hindustani represented by Urdu and Hindi is the third great language of the world. Bombay Presidency has three main groups—Gujarati, Marhati, Karnataki, Bihar has into its fold Chotnagpur languages. The language of 'Assam proper', as the Assam Valley and the hill districts of Assam have together been called, is Assamese, the hill and plain tribes often having dialects of their own. The Surma Valley is predominately Bengali.

The division of India into provinces is unfortunately not based upon linguistic, ethnological or cultural basis. According to Simon Commission's Report, the provinces "have grown up haphazard as a result of conquest, supersession of former rulers or administrative conquests.'

Linguistic Provinces—After the partition of India there is a great demand for the redistribution of Indian provinces on the basis of language. This problem is no doubt the creation of the Congress which since 1921 have been advocating the division of provinces on linguistic basis. But after the division of India, inconveniences and dangers of its practical application are becoming embarrassingly obvious.

Andhra is claiming a separate province from Madras, so also Karnataka Tamilnad, Karala, Maharashtra, Konkan on the linguistic basis. The territorial quarrels between Bihar and Orissa and between West Bengal and Bihar are already acute. Under these circumstances, the president of the Constituent Assembly appointed a Linguistic Provinces Commission in 1948.

The claim for the linguistic provinces is based on two alternative grounds: (1) that the linguistic groups are sub-nations and as such, contracting parties to the constitution from which Federation and the Centre derive their existence and power, and alternatively (2) the existing provinces are unwieldy, heterogenous and administratively inconvenient, particularly in the fields of education, legislatures etc.

The Commission issued its unanimous report on the 13th December, 1948 recommending that linguistic provinces should not be formed at present, but are of opinion that, when Indian States have been completely integrated and the country fully stabilised, and when Indian nationality is well-established, some of the provinces should be reformed. But the Commission make it quite clear that such reformation should be based on an administrative basis.

(1) First need of India is that it should be made a nation. Everything which helps the growth of nationalism has to go forward and everything which throws obstacles in its way to be rejected or should stand over.

(2) Country is not yet free from dangers of external aggression, that it is in the grip of economic crisis of great magnitude, that the integra-

tion of Indian States has not yet been completed, that the Government is pre-occupied with more urgent problems and that the country can not bear at this moment the financial and administrative strain which these new provinces will put upon it.

(3) The formation of linguistic provinces will breed intolerance against minority community speaking different languages in the same province the parochial patriotism which they will emphasize and the bitterness which will be caused by the marking-off of the boundaries, particularly with reference to the cities of Madras and Bombay.

(4) Creation of proposed linguistic provinces of Andhra, Kerala, Tamilnad Karnataka, Maharashtra and Konkon would entail a heavy expenditure, and also further heavy expenditure on building of new capitals of these provinces.

(5) A new minority problem would come into existence.

(6) The new provinces would all be deficit—some more, some less and hardly any of them would be able to function any better than a mere Police State.

(7) Linguistic provinces will have sub-national bias and will militate against the welding of India into one nation.

(8) There is a great problem of the inclusion of the cities of Bombay and Madras which are not populated exclusively or even largely by speakers of any one language. They are in every sense multi-lingual and they have developed a cosmopolitan life of their own and are more or less of all-India importance. The commission can not think to include these cities in any one unilingual province.

Division of Indian Languages.—The four great linguistic families of India are (1) *Austric* (2) *Dravidian*, (3) *Indo-Aryan*, (4) *Sino-Tibetan*. Austric language is represented in the hills and jungles of central and north-eastern India and is spoken by about 1·3 per cent. of the total population of India. The following are the Austric languages (*a*) *Kol* or *Munda* group which includes *Santali*, *Mundari*, *Ho*, etc., (*b*) *Khasi* in Assam, and (*c*) *Nicobarese*.

The *Dravidian* group includes twelve distinct languages—*Tamil*, *Telugu*, *Kanarese*, *Malayalam*, *Tulu*, *Kodagu*, *Todda*, *Kota*, *Gond*, *Khond*, *Oraon* and *Rajmahal*. These languages are spoken in the following regions or districts of India; South-eastern, north-eastern, north-western and south-districts of India; South-eastern, north-eastern, north-western and south-western, the Malabar coast, Coorg (adjoining the Malabar coast), Nilgiri Hills, Central India, N.-W. Orissa, the Rajmahal hills of Bengal. Tamil is spoken also in the northern part of Ceylon, also *Brahui* in Beluchistan.

The Indo-Aryan languages are grouped into following classes—(1) *North-western group* represented by *western Punjabi* and *Sindhi*, (2) *Southern group* represented by Marathi and Konkani, (3) *Eastern group* represented by Oriya, Bengali, Assamese and Behari, (4) *East Central group* consisting of Eastern Hindi. (5) *Central group* consisting of Western Hindi (*Hindi* and *Urdu*), Eastern Punjabi, Rajasthani, Gujarati, (6) *Northern or Pahari group* consisting of Nepali, Garwali, Kumaoni and

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Western Pahari. Another two groups of languages known as *Dardic* and *Iranian* fall under Indo-Aryan group. Dardic is represented by Kashmiri and other small languages between India and Afghanistan. Iranian branch is represented by *Pushtu in* N.W.F. Province and *Balochi.*

Sino-Tibetan or *Tibeto-Burman* languages belong to Mongolian race. They are spoken in the inaccessible hills and mountains of Assam and Nepal and account for only about 0·85 per cent. of Indian population. Following are some of these languages, *Manipuri, Lushai* and *Garo.*

IMPORTANT LANGUAGES OF INDIA

Gujrati is spoken in Gujrat, the northern maritime, province of Bombay presidency and also in Baroda and Indian States adjoining.

Rajasthani is spoken in Rajputana and adjoining parts of Central India; Rajasthani has numerous dialects.

Pahari is a general name applied to Indo-Aryan languages spoken in the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Nepal in the east to Chamba of the Punjab in the west.

Punjabi is the language of the Central Punjab. The vocabulary of Punjabi is very similar to that of Western Hindi.

Sindhi belongs to the north-western group of the outer band of Indo-European languages. Sindhi is directly derived from Prakrit.

Marathi is Indo-Aryan language spoken in Western and Central India. It covers parts of two provinces of India Proper—Bombay and Central Provinces including Berar; also spoken in Portuguese India and some parts of Nizam's Dominions.

Konkani is a language some two million people on India's west coast; has more scripts than one. It is no more than a Marhati dialect.

Bengali belongs to the group of Indo-Aryan languages. It is an immediate descendant of Magadhi Prakrit which spreading in south-east developed into Bengali. It is the most compact language for the two Bengals and majority of the people of Manbhum (Bihar), Goalpara (Assam), Sylhet (East Bengal) and Cachar districts (Assam).

Bihari is one of eastern group of modern Indo-Aryan languages. It extends over the province of Agra and to the south it covers nearly the whole of the Province of Chota Nagpur. It is also the lannguage of the inhabitants of the neighbouring Terai districts of Nepal. The Bihari has three main dialects—*Maithili, Tirhutia* and *Magadhi.*

Hindusthani —the term covers both Urdu and Hindi, because both the languages are in points of grammar and syntax practically identical and there is a considerable fund of vocabulary common to both. The three factors however contribute to separatism. Firstly, Hindi is generally written in Devnagri script and Urdu in Persian Arabic script; Secondly, owing to various historical and sociological associations, Hindi has to be associated with Hindus and Urdu with the Muslims. Thirdly Urdu writers tend to draw upon Arabic and Persian for expanding their vocabulary and Hindi writers upon Sanskrit.

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Indian Languages (1931)

Bengali	54,000,000	Kherwari	4,031,970
Assamese	1,997,057	Punjabi	15,839,254
Marathi	20,890,658	Gujrati	10,849,984
Tamil	20,412,652	Pashtu	1,634,490
Telegu	26,373,727	Behari	27,929,559
Hindi	79,000,000	Kanarese	11,206,380
Malayalam	9,137,615	Oriya	11,194,265
Sindhi	4,006,147	Rajasthani	13,897,896
Kashmiri	1,438,021	English	319,349

Universal Languages—Many attempts have been made to create universal languages. The best known of these are probably *Volapuk* and *Esperanto.* The former was invented in 1879 by Schleyer, a German, the second by Dr. L. L. Zemenhoff, Russian in 1887. The *basic English* ingeniously organised by C. K. Ogden in 1930 has been widely accepted in U.S.A. and England. The basic English simplifies the English language by employing only 800 words for all normal purposes. The copyright of the language has been recently purchased by the British Government.

WORLD LANGUAGES

The actual number of languages computed by the French Academy is about 2,796. The English is spoken by more than 270,000,000 people of the earth. The scientific classification of world languages can never be accomplished. But the following for practical purposes, is fairly accurate classification—

Arabic	25,000,000	Dravidian	65,000,000
Bengali	54,000,000	French	45,000,000
Burmese	7,000,000	Italian	40,000,000
Greek	5,500,000	Russian	85,000,000
Japanese	55,000,000	Spanish	65,000,000
German	80,000,000	Oceanic (Polinesian and Melanesian)	50,000,000
*Hindustani	79,000,000	Persian	10,000,000
Hungarian (Maggar)	20,000,000	Polish	30,000,000
Bulgarian	4,500,000	Portuguese	37,000,000
Chinese	430,000,000	Rumanian	16,000,000
Danish, Iceland, Norwegian and Swedish	12,000,000	Turkish	7,000,000
Dutch	10,000,000	Siamese	5,000,000
English	180,000,000		

Indo-European Languages

A—Eastern

1. *Indian*—Sanskrit, Prakrit, Pali, Bengali, Hindustani, Punjabi, Sinhalese, Assamese, Oriya, Gujrati, etc.
2. *Iranian*—Avetsic, Pehlavi, Persian, Kurd, Pashtu.
3. *Armenian.*
4. *Albanian.*
5. *Baltic*—Old Prussian, Lettish, Lithuanian.

Hindusthani is the term under which both Urdu and Hindi are amalgamated for census purposes. They are regarded as one language though their script is different.

6. *Slavonic*—Russian, Ruthenian, Bulgarian, Serbo-Croat, Czech, Wendish, Slovene, Polish.

B.—Western

1. *Greek:*—modern Greek.
2. *Latin*—Provencal, Catalan, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Rumanian, French-Rhœto-Romanic.
3. *Celti*—Gaelic, Welsh, Breton, Irish, Cornish.
4. *Tutonic: E. Germanic*—Gothic; *North Germanic*—Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish; *West Germanic*—English, Frisian, Dutch, Low German dialects, old high German, German.
5. Hittite.

Semitic & Hamitic Languages

A.—Semitic

1. *E. Semitic*—Babylonian, Assyrian
2. *W. Semitic*—Classical Hebrew, Modern Hebrew, Phœnician, Aramaic, Syriac, Arabic, Abyssiniann, Amharic.

B.—Hamitic

Egyptian, Coptic, Berber.

Caucasian Languages

Kirghiz, Georgian.

Dravidian Languages

Tamil, Telugu, Kanerese.

Basque Language

A.—Ural-Altaic

1. *Finno-Ugrian*—Fin, Estonian, Lap, Hung.
2. *Altaic*—Turkish, Tartar, Mongolian, Tungu, Jap, Korean.

B.—Austro-Asiatic

Mongolian Languages

1. *Munda.*
2. *Monkhmer*—Annamese, Cambobodian.
3. *Austronesian*—Polynesian, Melanesian, Micronesian, Indonesian.
4. *Indo-Chinese*—Tibetan, Burmese Chinese, Siamese.

C—Arctic

Eskimo.

D—Sumarian Languages.

Ethiopian Languages

1. *Sudanese.*
2. *Bantu.*
3. *Bushman.*
4. *Hottentot.*
5. *Geez.*

American Languages

1. *Uto-Aztec.*
2. *Iroquanian.*
3. *Caribbean.*
4. *Araukan.*

Australian Languages

1. *Australian.*
2. *Papuan.*

SCIENTIFIC & INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

Role of Indian Scientists—India occupies an honourable place in the realm of science although the number of workers is much less than it should be when the size and population of the country is taken into account.

India can boast of Nobel Prize winner in Physics in Sir C. V. Raman, the famous discoverer of "Raman effect" and a number of fellows of the Royal Society. Other famous scientists are Sir J. C. Bose who won renown by his work in plant physiology, S. Ramanujam, the mathematical pradigy of India, Dr. M. N. Saha for thermal ionization and radiation, B. Sahai, an authority in paleobotany, Dr. K. S. Krishnan, famous for his

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work on magnetism, H. J. Bhabha whose work on the cascade theory of cosmic rays has won for him international reputation, P. C. Mahalanobis of statistics fame, S. S. Bhatnagar, well-known for his work on colloids, emulsions and magneto-chemistry, Sir P. C. Roy for chemistry, S. N. Bose of Bose-Einstein statistics fame, T. S. Venkataraman, the sugarcane expert, Sir J. C. Ghose, J. N. Mukerjee, D. M. Bose famed for his research work in magnetism, Prof. Birbal Sahni, famous for paleobotany.

In the field of medical science, India was the first country to discover that micro-organisms responsible for malaria and transmitted by mosquitoes. The diagnosis, prevention and cure of kala-azar have been made possible by the work of the late Dr. U. N. Brahmachari; Dr. R. N. Chopra has investigated the cictine principles of Indian medicinal plants and their pharmacological action.

Department of Scientific Research—The Government of India have set up with the effect of June 1, 1948 a Department of Scientific Research. The Department will work under the Prime Minister. This department had been formed from the point of view of future scientific development in the country and to give an identity and importance to scientific research. It has taken over Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Board of Atomic Research and such other functions of the Director, Scientific and Industrial Research which the Government might decide to transfer. It will also co-ordinate the scientific activities of other ministries. In its co-ordination work the department will be assisted by a Co-ordination Committee consisting of prominent scientists.

Council of Scientific & Industrial Research—was established in 1942. This is the central organisation whose activities relate directly to the promotion of industry. This Council has now been reconstituted with the responsibility of utilising the scientific latent of the country in the interest of national development and well-being. The Council has been setting up a chain of National Research Laboratories which will fill the gap between science and industrial development. These research laboratories are to be located in different parts of India, *i.e.*, National Physical Laboratory at Delhi, National Chemical Laboratory at Poona, National Metallurgical Laboratory at Jamshedpur, Central Glass and Ceramic Research Institute at Calcutta, Fuel Research Institute at Dhanbad, Central Leather Research Institute at Madras, and Central Electro-Chemical Research Institute at Kariskudi (Madras). The establishment of a Central Food Technological Institute, a Drug Research Institute and two stations for Building Research and Road Research have all been approved by the Government and are being planned.

Administration—The administration of the Council is vested in the governing body presided over by the Prime Minister with the Minister of Industry and Supply as Vice-President. The President is vested with wide powers in matters of finance with the sanctioned budget allotment by the constitution and by delegation. Principal Administrative Officer of the Council is the Director, Scientific Industrial and Research.

Organisation—The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research is an autonomous body which is assisted in its deliberations by three advisory bodies—(1) Board of Scientific and Industrial Research. (2) Board of Research in Atomic Energy and (3) Industrial Liaison Committee.

Board of Scientific and Industrial Research—is composed of 23 members and functions as an Advisory Body to the Council on (1) proposals for instituting specific researches (2) for scientific institutions, (3) for establishment of research institutes, studentships, scholarships and (4) proposal for specific studies and surveys for indigenous resources. In the discharge of these functions, the Board is assistedd by 24 Research Committees of experts dealing with different subjects.

Board of Research in Atomic Energy—(1) A Board of Research in Atomic Energy has been formed to advise the Government and the Scientific and Industrial Research Council on all matters pertaining to the development of Atomic Energy in India.. The beach-sand of Travancore abound in *thorium* which is an important raw material for the production of atomic energy and with a view to conserving the national asset the Government had to ban its export. (2) An Atomic Energy Act has been passed in 1948 giving the Government of India control over all matters connected with Atomic Energy development in the country.

Under Clause 13 of the Atomic Energy Act, Government of India have decided to set up an (1) *Atomic Energy Commission* under the guidance of the Prime Minister with the following objects (1) to take such steps as may be necessary from time to time to protect the interest of the country in connection with Atomic energy. (2) To survey the territories of the Indian Union for the locations of useful minerals in connections with Atomic Energy. (3) To promote research in their own laboratories and to subsidies such research in the existing Institutions and Universities.

Industrial Liaison Committee—is composed of six members including two industrialists and advises the Council on matters connected with (*a*) utilisation of the results of research scheme. (*b*) Division of royalties between Council and Scientists concerned and between Scientists themselves and (*c*) generally the best method whereby the industrial development of research can be undertaken and services of scientists rewarded.

Technological Institutes—Setting up of four technological institutes in Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and North India on the lines of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, U.S.A., has been sanctioned and which will not only increase the supply of technical and scientific personnel of India and will go a great way towards the Scientific and Technological development of the country.

National Laboratories—Seven national laboratories are being erected and planned by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research—

(1) National Chemical Laboratory, Poona.
(2) National Physical Laboratory, Delhi.
(3) National Metallurgical Laboratory, Jamshedpur.
(4) National Fuel Research Institute, Digwadih, Dhanbad.
(5) Central Glass & Ceramics Research Institute, Calcutta.
(6) Road Research Institute, Delhi.
(7) Building Research Station.

The other research stations contempted are—

(1) Drug Research Laboratory.
(2) Food Technological Institute.

(3) Electro-Chemical Industries Research Institute.
(4) Leather Research Institute.

Each of these has been planned with a view to its making an important contribution to the cause of Indian Industry and to help to the best of its ability in raising the status of the country in the industrial world.

Fruit Technology—Started in 1941 as a special scheme for fruit and vegetable preservation to meet the demands of the army during the war time, the Indian Institute of Fruit Technology has now been established on a permanent basis at Delhi. It has taken over the work of the Institute of Fruit Technology started by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research in 1945. The Institute offers for advanced training in fruit preservation, conducts research on the preparation and standardisation of different kinds of fruit products, such as juices, squashes, and marmalades, pickles, sauces and chutneys and offers advice and guidance to the fruit preservers of the country.

Indian Council of Agricultural Research—The primary function of the Council is to promote, guide and co-ordinate agricultural including veterinary research. It makes arrangements for the training of research workers. The Council's work has been enlarged to include the work connected with the application of the results of research to field practice and to undertake, aid, promote and co-ordinate agricultural and animal husbandry education, research and its application in practice, development and marketing by all means calculated to increase scientific knowledge of the subjects and to secure its adoption in every day practice.

The Council is divided into two parts—governing body which manages all affairs and funds of the Council and Advisory Board which examines all proposals in connection with the scientific subjects. Government contribute financial grants every year and a cess of ½ p.c. *ad valorem* is levied under the Agricultural Produce Cess Act of 1940 to provide funds for agricultural research programme.

Indian Standards Institution—This Institution has been started at Delhi in 1947. The main objects of the Institution are (1) co-ordinating standardisation activities of various laboratories and institutions and introducing industrial standards on a national basis, (2) co-ordinating the efforts of producer and consumer for the improvement of materials, products, appliances, processes and methods, (3) introduction of codes of practices, (4) provisions or arrangements of facilities of examination and testing of commodities, processes and practices, (5) planning and direction of related investigations and research.

CENSUS OF INDIA

Change of Methods—There were changes in methods in census operations in 1941 than previous countings, such as (1) the abolition of old one-night theory of enumeration, (2) abolition of the old schedule and the conducting of enumeration straight on the slip which was later sorted to

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produce the various tables, (3) enormous operations carried out by people as civic duty.

Rate of Increase—India's population has increased by 50 millions in the past ten years. The various ratio of three to one between population of India Proper and States is maintained. The 1931 census recorded an increase in population of about 10½ per cent. while the 1941 census shows an increase of 15·1 per cent. and in the States and Agencies 14·3 per cent. The rate of increase has not however been remarkably rapid in comparison with that of certain other countries. The increase from 1872 to 1931 was 30 p.c. In England and Wales during the same period the increase was 77 p.c. In France it was considerably lower, while in U.S.A. it was more rapid than England.

Urbanisation of India—The 1941 census reveals two remarkable changes in Indian social life—urbanisation of modern India and the rapid growth of principal industrial centres. The pace of urbanisation has been particularly rapid in recent years as evident from the fact that the number of cities with one lakh or more population increased from 35 to 58 and the aggregate population of these cities rose from 9 millions to 16½ millions. The reason for the shift of population—(1) *industrialisation*, (2) *attractiveness of city life*, (3) *availability of best education only in towns.*

Sex Disparity—The sex disparity against the females is becoming prominent in every census and it is true of all communities. In the case of only two Provinces, Madras and Orissa, is there anything like numerical equality of the sexes; in all provinces the deficiency of women is striking. The sex disparity is more prominent in Punjab, N.-W. F. P. and Bombay. The All-India ratio in 1941 is 935 females for 1000 males and it was 940 females for 1000 males in 1931.

Classification under 'Communities' and not under 'Religion'—The important departure in 1941 from previous census is that classification of *communities* has been adopted instead of old classification of religion. So the figures for tribes include many different people, no matter what their individual religion may be. This sort of new classification has done a great injustice to the Hindus; for *'tribes'* mainly consist of followers of Hindu religion with only a sprinkling of Christians. Thus Hindu classification has lost a substantial numerical strength. On the other hand, the Hindus has been deliberately divided into scheduled castes and others in the community table.

Communial Proportion—Regarding community, 1941 census reveals that of 100 Indians 66 are Hindus, 24 Muslims, 6 of tribal origin. Persons of European origin are 135,000, that is, one in every 3,000.

Literacy—Literacy has been defined by the Indian Census authorities as ability to read and write a post card in one's mother tongue. Travancore takes the highest place in India, the figures being 41·7 per cent. Cochin comes next with 35·4 per cent., Delhi 25·7, Baroda 23·01 and of the Indian Provinces, Bombay heads the list with 19·5 pre cent. of the entire population, followed by Bengal with 16·1 per cent.

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India's Present Population

The present (1948) estimated population of Indian Union is 337 millions (*according to information given by the Home Minister in the Indian Constituent Assembly on August 10, 1948*).

Estimates are made yearly based on the average annual excess of births over deaths, on this basis the estimated population for 1947 is 331·7 millions. Applying the sex ratio disclosed by the 1941 Census *i.e.*, 935 female for 1,000 males, this would show 171·4 million males and 160·3 million females. The population of 1948 would be of the order of 337 millions.

Population

	Millions	*Increase p.c. since previous census*		*Millions*	*Increase p.c. since previous census*
1871	203	8·0	1911	308	6·7
1881	250	23·2	1921	306	1·0
1891	279	11·6	1931	338	10·6
1901	284	1·8	1941	389	15·1

Area & Population

	Area (sq. miles)			*Population (000)*	
	Ind. Provs.	*Ind. States*		*Ind. Provs.*	*Ind. States*
1921	857,370	711,032	1921	233,708	71,939
1931	859,465	712,508	1931	256,778	81,311
1941	865,446	715,964	1941	295,808	93,189

P.C. of Rural and Urban Population

	Rural	*Urban*		*Rural*	*Urban*
1891	90·5	9·5	1921	89·8	10·2
1901	90·1	9·9	1931	89	11
1911	90·6	9·4	1941	87	13

Population of Provinces

Madras	49,341,810	Assam	10,204,733
Bombay	20,949,840	Orissa	8,728,544
East & West Bengal	60,306,525	Ajmer-Merwara	583,693
U. P.	55,020,617	Andaman & Nicobars	33,768
Punjab (E. & W.)	28,418,819	Coorg	168,726
Bihar	36,340,115	Delhi	917,939
C. P.	16,813,584	Panth Piploda	5,267

Density of Population

	Per sq. mile		*Per sq. mile*
India & Ind. States	246	Madras	391
India	341	Punjab	287
Bengal	779	Bombay	272
W. Bengal	751	Orissa	272
Bihar	521	N.-W. F. H. P.	213
U. P.	518	Assam	186

C. P. & Berar ..	.. 170	Delhi ..	.. 1,599
Sind ..	.. 94	Cochin (State)	.. 953
Baluchistan ..	.. 9	Travancore (State)	.. 792
Coorg ..	.. 106	Baroda (State)	.. 345
Ajmer-Merwara	.. 243		

Population[1]

Registration acres of Indian Provinces[2]

Source: Ministry of Health

	Population[3] (thousands)	*Birth*[4] (per 1000)	*Death*[4] (per 1000)	*Infant mortality*[5] (per 1000 live-births)
1938	282,341	33·3	23·7	167
1938	286,204	32·7	21·5	156
1941	293,931	32·1	21·8	158
1942	295,694	29·3	21·3	163
1943	297,458	25·9	23·6	165
1944	299,222	25·4	24·1	169
1945	300,985	27·3	21·5	151
1946	302,749	27·9	17·5	...
1947	304,512	24·6[6]	18·6[6]	...

[1] Figures relate to undivided India.

[2] Registration incomplete.

[3] Total population 388,998,000 in 1941.

[4] Crude rates. Monthly averages.

[5] Number of deaths under one year of age.

[6] Relates to Indian Union.

Distribution according to Communities

	1941	*1931*		*1941*	*1931*
Hindus	254,930,506	238,623,000	*Tribes	25,441,489	7,630,000
Muslims	92,058,096	77,050,000	Jains	1,449,286	——
Christians	6,316,549	5,963,000	Paris	114,890	——
Buddhists	232,000	439,000	Jews	22,480	——
Sikhs	5,691,447	——	Others	409,877	——

Increase of Population

	1931 to 41		*1931 to 41*
Madras ..	.. 11·6	Bengal ..	.. 20·3
Bombay ..	.. 15·9	Bihar ..	.. 12·3
C. P ..	.. 9·7	U. P. ..	.. 13·7
Assam ..	.. 18·3	Orissa ..	.. 8·8
		Punjab ..	.. 20·5

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* Of the Tribal community it is estimated that about 8 million profess Tribal religions, while approximately one million are Christians and about 16 millions as adherents to some form of the Hindu faith.

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Sex Composition

	Females per 1000 males		Females per 1000 males
1881	 950	1921	 940
1891	 960	1931	 940
1901	 960	1941	 935
1911	 950		

Cities in India

Name of the City	Province or State	Population in 1941	Name of the City	Province or State	Population in 1941
Calcutta	W. Bengal	.. 2,488,083	Poona	Bombay	.. 258,197
Bombay	Bombay	.. 1,489,883	Agra	U.P.	.. 284,149
Madras	Madras	.. 777,481	Benares	U.P.	.. 263,100
Hyderabad	Hyderabad	.. 739,159	Allahabad	U.P.	.. 260,630
Ahmedabad	Bombay	.. 591,267	Madura	Madras	.. 239,144
Delhi	Delhi	.. 521,849	Sholapur	Bombay	.. 212,620
Bangalore	Mysore	.. 406,760	Indore	Indore	.. 203,695
Cawnpore	U.P.	.. 487,324	Patna	Bihar	.. 175,695
Amritsar	E. Punjaz	.. 391,010	Jaipur	Rajputana	.. 175,810
Howrah	Bengal	.. 379,292	Baroda	Baroda	.. 152,301
			Jamshedpur	Bihar	.. 148,711
Lucknow	U.P.	.. 387,177	Ajmer	Ajmer-Merwara	147,258
Nagpur	C.P.	.. 301,957	Jubbulpore	C.P.	.. 178,339

Provinces of the Dominion of India

(According to the Census of 1941)

1. Madras

Area—126,166 sq. m.
Population—49,341,810.
Males—24,557,143.
Females—24,784,667.
Density of pop.—391 per sq. m.
Percentage of pop. in towns—15·9.
Females per 1,000 males—1,009.

Communities

Hindus	 42,779,822	Parsis	 369
Muslims	 3,896,452	Buddhists	 1,072
Christians	 2,001,082	Jews	 191
Sikhs	 418	Tribes	 562,029
Jains	 30,136	Others	 4,043

2. Orissa

Area—32,192 Sq. m.
Population—8,728,544.
Percentage of pop. in towns—3·7.
Males—4,218,121.
Females—4,510,423.
Females per 1,000 males—1,069.
Density of pop.—271 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	 6,832,706	Parsis	 13
Muslims	 146,301	Buddhists	 454
Christians	 27,690	Jews	 3
Sikhs	 232	Tribes	 1,721,006
Jains	 139		

3. Bihar

Area—69,745 Sq. m.
Population—36,340,151.
Percentage of pop. in towns—5·4
Males—18,224,428.
Females—18,115,723.
Females per 1,000 males—994.
Density of pop.—521 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	26,514,269	Parsis	547
Muslims	4,716,314	Buddhists	684
Christians	34,678	Jews	197
Sikhs	13,213	Tribes	5,055,647
Jains	4,602		

4. United Provinces

Area—106,247 Sq. m.
Population—55,020,617.
Percentage of pop. in towns—12·5.
Males—28,860,214.
Females—26,160,403.
Females per 1,000 males—906.
Density of population—518 p. sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	45,811,669	Parsis	1,375
Muslims	8,416,308	Buddhists	5,478
Christians	159,841	Jews	80
Sikhs	232,445	Tribes	289,422
Jains	102,768	Others	1,231

5. Central Provinces & Berar

Area—98,575 sq. m.
Population—16,813,584.
Percentage of pop. in towns—12·4.
Males—8,430,282.
Females—8,383,302.
Females per 1,000 males—994.
Density of population—170 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	12,931,936	Parsis	2,014
Muslims	783,697	Buddhists	70
Christians	58,569	Jews	285
Sikhs	14,996	Tribes	2,937,364
Jains	84,593		

6. Bombay

Area—76,443 sq. m.
Population—20,849,840.
Percentage of pop. in towns—26·0.
Males—10,817,333.
Females—10,032,507.
Females per 1,000 males—927.
Density of population—272 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	16,555,390	Parsis	86,270
Muslims	1,920,368	Buddhists	1,433
Christians	375,876	Jews	14,471
Sikhs	8,011	Tribes	1,614,298
Jains	266,231	Others	7,882

7. Assam

Area—50,330 sq. m.
Population—7,474,004.
Percentage of pop. in towns—8.
Males—3,958,688.
Females—3,515,316.
Females per 1,000 males—888.
Density of population—155 per sq. m.

Communities

Muslims	1,752,303	Non-Muslims ..	5,721,701

8. West Bengal

Area—28,033 sq. m.
Population—21,194,613.
Males—11,468,946.
Females—9,725,667.
Females per 1,000 males—848.
Density of population—756 per sq. m.

Muslims	5,301,020	Non-Muslims ..	15,893,593

9. East Punjab

Area—37,314 sq. m.
Population—12,172,919.
Percentage of pop. in towns—14.
Males—6,569,303.
Females—5,603,616.
Females per 1,000 males—853.
Density of population—326 per sq. m.

Communities

Muslims	4,441,000	Non-Muslims ..	7,731,919

10. Ajmer-Merwara

Area—2,400 sq. m.
Population—583,693.
Percentage of pop. in towns—36·7.
Males—307,172.
Females—276,521.
Females per 1,000 males—900.
Density of population—243 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	376,481	Jains	18,853
Muslims	89,889	Tribes	91,472
Christians	3,895	Others	2,217
Sikhs	876		

11. Delhi

Area—574 sq. m.
Population—917,939.
Percentage of pop. in towns—75·8.
Males—535,236.
Females—382,703.
Females per 1,000 males—715.
Density of pop.—1,599 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	535,236	Sikhs	16,156
Muslims	382,703	Jains	11,382
Christians	10,494	Others	7,711

12. Coorg

Area—1,593 sq. m.
Population—168,726.
Percentage of pop. in towns—6·6.
Males—92,347.
Females—76,379.
Females per 1,000 males—827.
Density of pop.—106 per sq. m.

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Communities

Hindus	130,753	Jains	34
Muslims	14,730	Parsis	12
Christians	3,441	Tribes	19,723
Buddhists	33		

13. Andaman & Nicobars

Area—3,143 sq. m.
Population—33,768.
Males—21,458.
Females—12,310.
Females per 1,000 males—574.
Density of population—11 per sq. m.

Communities

Hindus	8,427	Sikhs	743
Muslims	8,005	Tribes	11,056
Christians	1,032	Others	4,485

METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT

The department was started in 1875 as a result of the findings of a Famine Commission.

The work of the Meteorological department may be classified as follows—

(1) The weather science is absolutely necessary to the Indian farmer; for India's food production depends so much upon the vagaries of monsoons. Through All-India Radio stations district-wise forecasts of weather for the next 36 hours and the outlook for the following two or three days are broadcast. In this service, weather requirements of individual crops are taken into account.

(2) The study of the relationship between weather and crops in various localities, being essential due to the requirements of each crop, seventy-five observatories are specially set up all over the country. Based on the results of these investigations, Indian Meteorological Department have prepared a *Crop Weather Calendar* which contains district-wise details of the principal cultural operations and important growth phases relating to different crops as well as their normal weather and warning requirements.

(3) The Department is trying to help the farmer with the collection and study of folklore regarding weather. Proverbs, slogans and wise sayings are being collected and put to the test of scientific knowledge and data which would tell the farmer when it would be advantageous to sow or reap or perform other agricultural operations.

(4) The Department is also looking into the possibilities of creating artificial rain. Experiments carried out successfully in America and Australia by spraying dry ice from an aircraft into clouds above freezing level, have given hopes to this department for inducing artificial rain in special areas.

(5) The Department is aiding Civil Aviation, Shipping, Irrigation and Communications, with short-range weather reports and forecasts to air-

pilots. Warnings of storms, cyclones and of heavy rainfall are given to Aviation, Shipping, Ports, Irrigation, Railways and Telegraphs.

(6) The Department is helping various constructive projects of the nation with a net-work of 86 Hydro-Meteorological Stations including the catchments of the Damodar, the Mahanadi and the Kosi in order to observe the quantity of rainfall, evaporation, sub-soil absorption in the region.

(7) In order to predict climatic phenomena, it is not only necessary to conduct observations of the atmosphere upto height of 10 miles, but also to study sun spots and solar activity and even the underground vibrations below the earth's solid foundations. The department maintains for this purpose nearly 315 observatories of various categories, such as 255 surface observatories, 48 pilot-balloon stations to find out wind direction and 12 stations which send up radio-sondes to observe conditions in the upper air. In addition, there are about 2,500 rain gauge stations.

(8) The Department has secured a few radars to observe the velocity and direction of wind upto a height of 30,000 feet even in cloudy weather.

(9) A Solar Physics Observatory is maintained at Kodaikanal to study the conditions of sun's surface and solar atmosphere. In addition, there are two Astronomical Observatories elsewhere.

(10) A Magnetic Observatory is in Alibag and there is a plan to have a full-fledged magnetic observatory in Kodaikanal.

(11) Five Seismological Observatories are already functioning and three more are under construction.

(12) A project noted out recently by the Department was to set up a high altitude observatory on the Himalayas for the study of heavenly bodies and for research in cosmic ray, astrophysics, geology, geo-physics, high level meteorology, movement of snow and microbiology.

(13) The Department has also proposals for establishing a first-class Astronomical observatory with a 100 Telescope near about Ujjain.

(14) The Department issues time signals through Radio, the accurate time being determined by astronomical methods and by reception of radio-signals from Greenwich.

Average Rainfall in India

	Inches		Inches
Shillong	84·64	Srinagar	25·87
Darjeeling	126·42	Cuttack	59·97
Simla	61·04	Jubbulpore	55·11
Ootacamund	55·56	Nagpur	49·24
Madras	49·92	Poona	27·11
Bombay	71·21	Hyderabad (Deccan) ..	31·66
Calcutta	62·48	Bangalore	35·37
Allahabad	41·82	Patna	46·60
Lucknow	40·02	Benares	40·55
Delhi	26·24	Agra	26·90
Cawnpore	35·91	Ahmedabad	28·83
Dehra Dun	85·04		

Normal Rainfall in Provinces

Madras—		*Punjab*—	
Malabar	100·3	P. East and North	23·4
Madras S. E.	35·7	P. South-West	10·1
Madras Coast, North	37·9	*Bihar*—	
Bombay—		Chotanagpur	52·6
Gujarat	32·5	Bihar	48·4
Konkan	107·4	*Orissa*	57·6
Bombay, Deccan	30·4	*Central Provinces & Berar*—	
		C. P. West	46·6
Bengal	74·7	C. P. East	53·8
United Provinces—		Berar	32·5
U. P. East	39·8	*Assam*	100·3
U. P. West	37·1	*Kashmir*	41·4
Andamans & Nicobars	116·2	*Central India*—	
		West	34·6
Hyderabad—		*Rajputana*—	
North	34·4	East	42·3
South	29·7	West	12·8
Mysore	36·2	East	26·0

Annual Maximum & Minimum Temperatures

	Maximum	*Minimum*		*Maximum*	*Minimum*
Shillong	69·9	53·5	Kanpore	89·0	66·0
Darjeeling	58·6	47·9	Cuttack	90·9	72·2
Simla	62·4	49·4	Dehra Dun	81·4	60·3
Srinagar	67·7	43·7	Lucknow	89·7	66·0
Abu	75·8	62·0	Agra	90·4	63·0
Ootacamund	66·0	49·1	Meerut	87·8	63·7
Kodaikanal	63·6	50·8	Delhi	88·8	64·5
Bombay	86·8	73·8	Ahmedabad	94·6	70·6
Madras	92·2	74·9	Jubbulpur	88·2	63·6
Calcutta	88·5	70·2	Nagpur	92·1	70·1
Patna	87·6	68·9	Poona	89·4	64·7
Benares	89·5	56·6	Hyderabad (Dn.)	90·3	64·4
Allahabad	90·1	66·4	Bangalore	83·7	63·8

Some Meteorological data

Average rainfall in India is 42 inches.

The highest maximum temperature recorded in Indian Sub-Continent was 127·F at Jacobabad (Pakistan) on June 12, 1919.

Kanjarapalli, Travancore has on the average 169 rainy days in a year against 162 days at Cherapunji which records the maximum annual rainfall. On July 23, 1930, Karachi recorded 7·86″ of rain which is in excess of its annual average rainfall of 7·62″.

South-west monsoon gives 90 p.c. of the total rainfall of India. Cherapunji in Assam has 560 inches of rains in a year. Upper Sind (Pakistan) has 3 inches of rainfall annually.

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INDIAN PRESS AND NEWSPAPERS

The first regular newspaper to be published in India was weekly English newspaper entitled Hickey's *Bengal Gazette* which appeared on 29th January, 1780. The paper soon came in conflict with the then Governor-General Warren Hastings, who promulgated an order on November 1780, withdrawing the permission to the newspapers to be circulated through the Post Office on the ground of the newspaper's improper paragraphs tending to vilify the private character and to disturb the peace of the English settlement in Calcutta. At that time, stopping circulation through Post Office and forcibly deporting the editor to England were the means of punishing the newspapers. The establishment of certain other papers followed in Bengal, while the first newspaper to be founded in Madras was the *Madras Courier* which appeared in October 1785. During the next decade, the Madras Press was constantly in trouble with authority.

All the early newspapers were in English language and being British-owned, devoted scant attention to Indian questions and confined themselves to the comments and criticisms on the British administration carried on by East India Company's higher officers. During this early period, there were no regular press laws and the ultimate sanction behind Government's order was the Government's power of expulsion of the editor from India which power had been upheld by the Supreme Court of Judicature.

In 1799 Lord Wellesley issued Regulations for the control of newspapers published in Calcutta providing that every newspaper should bear the name of the printer, that the name and address of the editor and proprietor should be communicated to Government and that no newspaper should be published unless it had been inspected by the Government's censor appointed for the purpose. Penalty for a breach of the Regulations was immediate embarkation to Europe.

In 1818 Government promulgated a new rule requiring the name of the printer to be uniformly affixed to all publications.

The first Indian owned newspaper to be published was *Bengal Gazette* in 1816. This was followed by other periodicals in Bengali Language between the years 1816 to 1820. With the establishment of Indian-owned press the power of expulsion from India became inoperative. So in 1818 Lord Hastings decided to abolish censorship and to substitute in its place certain general rules for the guidance of the editors. The submission of newspapers to the Government censor prior to publication was dispensed with but the editors were required to send to the Government one copy of every newspaper or periodical published by them and were also prohibited from publishing matter relating to the conduct of higher officials, the proceedings of the Court and Directors or other authorities in England, matter having a tendency to create alarm or suspicion among the native population or to interfere with their religious feelings. But the Court of Directors of E. I. Company disapproved this move by the Lord Hastings and instructed him to revert to the practice which had prevailed prior to 1818.

The Press Regulations made by Lord Hastings did not have the force of law and in 1823 statutory regulations known as Adams Regulations were promulgated in Bengal to be followed by similar regulations in Bombay. It provided (*a*) no newspaper, periodical, pamphlet or book containing public news or comments to be published without a licence from Government (*b*) to declare the real name and address of the printers and publishers, (*c*) every licence issued may be cancelled at any time by the Government. The penalty for a breach of the regulation was a fine upto Rs. 400 but advertisements, catalogues, etc., were exempted from the Regulation.

With the growth of the press and the awakening of public opinion, the question of control of the press again came to the fore. In 1835 Sir Charles Metcalfe, the acting Governor-General asked Macaulay to draft an act on the subject of the press for application to the whole of India. Sir Charles Metcalfe may be regarded as the Liberator of the Indian press. He wrote: "If India could be preserved as a part of the British Empire only by keeping its inhabitants in a state of ignorance, our domination, would be a curse to the country and ought to cease. But I see more ground for just apprehension in ignorance itself. I look to the increase of knowledge with a hope that it may strengthen our Empire; that it may remove prejudices, soften asperities and substitute a rational conviction of the benefits of our Government."

In 1835 Metcalfe's Act for the liberation of the Indian Press (XI of 1835) was passed in supersession of the then existing Press Regulations in Bengal and Bombay. The provision of the Metcalfe's Act were incorporated in 1867 in Part 2 of the Press and Registration of Books Act (XXV of 1867) which repealed Metcalfe's Act and which is still in force. But Metcalfe's liberal attitude was condemned by the Court of Directors who superseded him for promotion in his official career. Lord Auckland who became Governor-General in 1835 followed Metcalfe's policy but new problem arose when the cleavage between the Indian owned and British-owned newspapers became marked in 1857, the year of the Indian Mutiny. So the question of gagging the press again came to the fore. An Act was passed in 1857 to remain operative for one year for regulating the establishment of printing presses and the circulation of printed books and newspapers. The Act also provided for forfeiture of books and printing presses. It was in fact a very stringent law and in effect revived the licensing provisions of the Regulation of 1823 and the Registration procedure of Metcalfe's Act.

After the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown in 1858, many newspapers were founded in the following two decades, such as, *Times of India, The Pioneer, The Madras Mail, The Amrita Bazar Patrika, The Statesman, The Civil & Military Gazette* and *The Hindu.*

The next event in the history of the press laws was the enactment of the Press Registration of Books Act (XXV of 1867) for the regulation of printing presses and newspapers, for the preservation of copies of books and for the registration of books. This Act is now still in force. With the increase in number and influence of newspapers and the growing criticism of administration, the Government was somewhat alarmed. To meet the situation and also the crisis arising from Wahabi Conspiracy of 1869-70, the Government passed Indian Penal Code (amendment) Act 1870 (27 of 1870) by incorporating in the Code, a section of sedition, namely 124A. This section dealt with a person who, "excites, attempts to excite feelings of disaffection to the Government established by Law in British India."

In 1876 proposals were again made for a new law to deal with the growing criticism of Government in the Press. So in 1878 the Vernacular Press Act was passed which gave power to Government to call upon the printer and publisher of any paper in an Indian Language not to publish anything likely to excite feelings of disaffection against the Government or antipathy between persons of different races, caste and religion. Contravention of the provisions of the Act was punishable not only with the forfeiture of the bond but also with the seizure of the press. The passing of the Vernacular Press Act was bitterly resented by the Indian Press. The *Amrita Bazar Patrika* which was still then bi-lingual converted itself wholly in English following the passage of the Act. This Act resulted in the starting of many Indian-owned newspapers in English. The liberal viceroy Lord Ripon, however repealed this obnoxious Act in 1881.

Due to leakage of some confidential Foreign Office documents concerning Kashmir by *Amrita Bazar Patrika,* Lord Dufferin passed in 1889, Indian Official Secrets Act to prevent the disclosure of the official documents and information.

Restriction on the Press was further tightened by some Amendments in the Indian Penal Code *i.e.,* an addition of Section 153A and the amendment of the original Section 105.

The growing nationalist movement in India with the establishment of Indian National Congress in 1885 reached its climax during the partition days in Bengal where the press adopted a style of writing which led the Government to fear the development of what they considered country-wide seditious movement and the anarchical ideas were undoubtedly gaining ground largely due to result of discontent over partition of Bengal. So in 1908 during the political murders in Bengal, the Newspapers (*Incitement to offences*) Act was passed with the object of dealing with papers inciting to murder or act of violence. In 1910 Government of India passed Press Act of 1910 which empowered the Government to demand security from any newspaper existing or contemplated by putting in an application before a Magistrate.

In 1921 Government of India in response to strong agitation against wide powers of the Press Act, set up a Committee to examine Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867 and Indian Press Act, 1910 and the Newspapers (Incitement to offences) Act of 1908 and to suggest on the modifications on the then existing laws. The Committee recommended the following:—(1) Press Act of 1910 should be repealed; (2) Newspaper (Incitement of offences) Act should be repealed; (3) Press and Registration of Books Act and Post Office Act should be amended to meet certain conclusions. The requisite amendments were carried out by Press Law Repeal and Amendment Act, 14 of 1922.

In 1922 at the request of the Chamber of Princes for special protection to Indian States, Governor-General certified a Bill which became the Indian States (Protection against Dissatisfaction) Act of 1922, the passage of which was refused by the Legislative Assembly. In 1923 Official Secrets Act now in force was thoroughly amended, remodelled and passed.

With the launching of Civil Disobedience movement in 1930, Government promulgated Indian Press Ordinance, 1930, which was placed in the Statute Book as the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act of 1931. This Act provided the demand of security deposits from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 10,000.

Another legislation affecting the press is the Foreign Relations Act of 1932, the object of which is to provide against the publication of statements likely to prejudice the maintenance of friendly relations between H.M.'s Government and the Goverment of certain Foreign States.

In 1934 Indian States (Protection) Act, XI of 1934 was passed to protect the administrations of States in India which are under the suzerainty of His Majesty from activities which tend to subvert or excite disaffection towards or obstruct such administration.

When the World War II broke out, Government of India began to enact ordinances and restrictions on the Press. On October 26, 1940, Government of India issued a notification "prohibiting the printing and publishing any matter calculated, directly or indirectly to foment opposition to the prosecution of war or relating to the holding of meeting or the making of speeches for the purpose."

As a result of this notification Press Advisory Committee was formed by the representatives of newspapers and the notification was withdrawn. The Advisory Committee was permanently set-up to advise the Government on any matters affecting the Press. Advisory Committee was also set up in the Provinces.

This arrangement worked with varying degrees of success in all provinces, but when the 'Quit India' resolution of A.I.C.C. was passed in 1942, Government of India imposed fresh restrictions on the press, such as, registration of correspondents, limitation of headlines and space given to news of disturbances, arbitrary censorship, etc., etc.

To meet the above restrictions, All-India Newspaper Editors Conference in October 1942 evolved a code of voluntary restrictions and on the basis of this resolution Government withdrew rigorous restrictions. But there were breaches of Gentleman's Agreement from both sides and this once came to a serious head, when the Government banned the publication of news regarding Prof. Bhansali's fast in 1943. So newspapers were directed by All-India Newspapers Conference not to give publicity to all circulars from Government houses, new year's honours, all speeches of the members of the British Government, Government of India and Provincial Governments except the portions thereof which contain decisions and announcements. Government's prohibitory orders were withdrawn on 12 Jan. 1943 and ban on Government ceased to be operative.

After the end of the War, fresh difficulties arose and this was due to the communal disturbances that broke out throughout the country. At this time also, the Press evolved a code of voluntary restrictions. This arrangement did not work smoothly due to many newspapers being outside the Committee who refused to abide by this code. The result was the Government armed themselves with special powers for imposing pre-censorship and other restrictions.

Popular Governments returned to power in April 1946 in the Provinces in which Congress Ministries had resigned in 1939. A popular Interim Government came into power at the Centre in 1946 on 30th September, the wide powers of control of the press which were available under the Defence of India Rules came to an end. The communal situation in several provinces became very grave and communal riots broke out. So the Central Government and Provincial Governments were compelled in 1946-47 to enact ordinances to deal with disturbed conditions. Central Government passed Central Press (Special Powers) Act 1947, and the Provincial Governments passed Public Order Acts, Public Safety Acts etc. These enactments mainly dealt with imposition of censorship; control of publications; and import, possession or conveyance of documents.

When the Interim Government came into power in 1946, they felt it necessary to review the entire Press Laws of India in the altered conditions of the country. So they appointed the Press Laws Enquiry Committee under the Presidency of Mr. Justice Ganganath Jha under the Government of India Resolution dated 15th March 1947.

Press & Newspapers Organisations—There are at present three bodies in India which seek to promote the welfare of Indian newspapers—(1) *Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society* started in Feb. 1939, the objects of which are as follows: (*a*) to act as a central organisation of the Press of India, Burma and Ceylon, (*b*) to promote and safeguard the business interests of members as affected by the action of Legislatures, Governments, the Law Courts, municipal and local bodies and associations or organisations, etc., (*c*) to collect information upon all topics having a practical interest for members and to communicate the same to them, (*d*) to promote co-operation in all matters affecting the common interests of members, (*e*) to hold periodical conferences of its members to discuss and determine action on matters of common interests, (*f*) to make rules to govern the conduct of its members in specified matters, to provide penalties for the infringement thereof, and to provide means of determining whether there has been such infringement, (*g*) to maintain a permanent secretariat in India which should watch over the interests of members and should permit of a constant interchange of information and views, (*h*) to do all such other things as may be conducive to the attainment of the aforesaid objects.

(2) *All-India Newspaper Editors Conference* was started in 1940. Its constitution is as follows: (*a*) to preserve the high traditions and standards of journalism, (*b*) to serve and safeguard the interests of the press in regard to the publication of news and fair comment, (*c*) to secure all facilities and privileges to the press for the due discharge of its responsibilities, (*d*) to represent the press in India in its relations with public and public institutions and particularly in its relations to government to

set up Committees who would act *liaison* between the government and the press as a whole, (*c*) to establish and develop contacts with Associations with similar objects in other countries.

Another Association has also been started known as (c) *Indian Languages Newspapers Association* (established in 1941) for the welfare of news-papers in Indian languages. It is the only organisation in India representing the interests of small newspapers, periodicals and magazines.

senting the interests of small newspapers, periodicals and magazines.

University Course in Journalism—Several universities of India have taken the question of teaching of journalism. But at present Madras University the only University in Indian Union who has opened a course of journalism. University of Calcutta has also drawn up a similar plan.

Press Laws Enquiry Committee—Government of India set up a Press Law Enquiry Committee under the chairmanship of Sri Ganganath Jha to go into the entire press laws of India for thorough overhauling and modification of Indian Press Laws. The Committee was composed of members nominated from the Central Legislature and three editors recommended by the A.I.N.E.C. Following are the recommendations of the Press Laws Enquiry Committee which was issued in 1948:—

Regarding the repeal of the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act 1931, the Committee are however of the opinion that some provisions fo the Act should be incorporated in the ordinary law of the country. Some of the other important recommendations of the Committee are the exemption of the Press from Section 144 of the Cr. Pro. Code and provision of a separate law, if necessary for dealing with the Press in urgent cases of apprehended danger and the Amendment of Section 124-A I.P.C., so that only incitement to violence against government established by law would be treated as sedition.

Other recommendations are—(*a*) an explanation should be added to Sec. 153-A I.P.C. (Promoting enemity between classes) to the effect that it does not amount to an offence under that Section to advocate a change in the social or economic order provided such advocacy does not involve violence, (*b*) Repeal of the Indian States (Protection against disaffection) Act 1922 and Indian States (Protection) Act 1934, (*c*) before taking action against the Press under emergency legislation, Provincial Governments should invariably consult Press Advisory Committee or similar body.

Press Trust of India—In 1948 the Indian newspapers formed their own news agency, the *Press Trust of India Ltd.* This is the national news agency of India co-operatively owned by the newspapers as a non-profit making trust.

This new development has been possible due to the agreement between Reuters and Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society which marks an important development in the organisation of world news. The Associated Press of India Ltd., a Reuter-subsidiary Company has been transferred to the Press Trust of India Ltd. The Press Trust of India becomes a partner with the newspapers of the U.K., Australia and New Zealand in the ownership of Reuters. It is represented in Reuters by a trustee and a director and it becomes a party to the Reuter Trust.

With the effect of 1st February 1949, Press Trust of India has taken over the ownership and management of the Reuter and the Associated Press of India organisations in India and has entered into partnership with Reuter's World News Organisation.

WEST BENGAL

Dailies

Statesman (*English*): Chowringhee Square, Calcutta.

Advance (*English*): 74, Dharamtola St., Calcutta.

Amrita Bazar Patrika (*English*): 14, Ananda Chatterjee Lane, Cal.

Ananda Bazar Patrika (*Bengali*): 1, Burman Street, Calcutta.

Basumati (*Bengali*): 166, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta.

Matribhumi (*Bengali*): 3, Taltola Avenue, Calcutta.

Hindustan Standard (*English*): 3-C, Burman Street, Calcutta.

Ithihad (*Bengali*): 199, Park St., Calcutta.

Jagriti (*Hindi*): 25, Ezra Mansions, Calcutta.

Jugantar (*Bengali*): 2, Ananda Chatterjee Lane, Calcutta.

Krishak (*Bengali*): 34, Creek Row, Calcutta.

Lokmanya (*Hindi*): 160, Harrison Road, Calcutta.

Rozana Hind (*Urdu*): 17, Sagor Dutta Lane, Calcutta.

Star of India (*English*): 6, Waterloo Street, Calcutta.

Viswamittra (*Hindi*): 74, Dharramtola Street, Calcutta.

Nation (*English*):

Periodicals

Arani (*Bengali Weekly*): 37/7, Beniatola Lane, Calcutta.

Arthik Jagat (*Bengali Weekly*): 122, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta.

Basumati (*Bengali monthly*): 166, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta.

Bharatvarsa (*Bengali monthly*): Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

Batayan (*Bengali weekly*): 85, Bowbazar Street, Calcutta.

Betar Jagat (*Official Radio Bengali Fortnightly*): 1, Garston Place, Calcutta.

Calcutta Municipal Gazette (*English weekly organ of the Cal. Corporation*): S. N. Banerjee Rd., Calcutta.

Mauchak (*Children's Bengali Monthly*): 14, College Sq., Cal.

Capital (*English Financial weekly*): 4, Lyons Range, Calcutta.

Desh (*Bengali weekly*): 1, Burman Street, Calcutta.

Dipali (*Bengali weekly*): 123/1, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

Indian Finance (*English Financial Weekly*): 116, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

Hindustan Year Book (*English Annual*): 14, College Square, Cal.

Modern Review (*English monthly*): Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

Prabasi (*Bengali monthly*): Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

Orient Illustrated weekly: 93-A, Dharamtola Street, Calcutta.

Torchbearer (*English monthly*): 50, Lake Place, Calcutta.

BEHAR

Dailies

Indian Nation (*English*): Patna.

Searchlight (*English*): Patna.

Periodicals

Aryavarta (*Hindi*): Patna.

Behar Herald (*English*): Patna. Patna.

BOMBAY

Dailies

Advocate of India (*English*): 21, Dalaz Street, Fort.

Bombay Chronicle (*English*): Parsi Bazar Street.

Bombay Samachar (*Guzrati*): Parsi Bazar Street.

Bombay Sentinel (English): Parsi Bazar Street.

Dhyan Prakash (*Marathi*): Sandhurst Road.

Evening News of India (*English*): Hornby Road.

Free Press Journal (*English*): 21, Dalal Street, Fort.

Jame-e-Jamshed (*Gujrathi*): Ballard Pier, Fort.

Janmabhoomi (*Gujrati*): 136/140, Medows Street, Fort.

Lokasatta (*Marathi*): Sassoon Docks, Colaba, Bombay.

Lokmanya (*Marathi*): 136/42, Medows Street.

Matribhumi (*Gujrati*): 21, Dalal Street, Fort.

Morning Herald (*English*): 15, Bank Street, Fort.

National Standard (*English*): Sassoon, Docks, Colaba, Bombay.

Navakal (*Marathi*): 13, Shenniwadi Gergaon, Bombay.

Nutan Gujarat (Gujarati): 136/42, Medows Street, Bombay, Fort.

Navasakti (*Marathi*): 21, Dalal St., Bombay.

Samyukta Karnatak (*Kannada*): Koppikar Road, Hubli.

Sandesh (*Gujarati*): Sarangpur, Ahmedabad.

Times of India (English): Hornby Road, Fort.

Sakal (*Marathi*): Poona.

Vande Mataram (*Gujarati*): Frere Road, Fort, Bombay.

Periodicals

All India (*English weekly*): 41, Hamam Street, Fort.

Bharat Jyoti (*English weekly*): 21, Dalal Street, Fort.

March (*English weekly*): Parsi Bazar St., Bombay.

Blitz (*English weekly*): Apollo Street, Fort.

Bombay Chronicle (*Eng. weekly*): Parsi Bazar Street, Fort.

Bombay Samachar (*Gujarati*): Parsi Bazar Street, Fort.

Commerce (*English Commercial weekly*): Churchgate Street.

Filmindia (*English monthly*): 55, Phirozshah Road.

Forum (*English weekly*): Apollo Street, Fort.

Illustrated Weekly of India: Hornby Road, Bombay.

Kesari (Marathi Bi-weekly): 568, Narayan Peth, Poona.

Karma Veer (*Kannada Weekly*): Hubli, Bom. Presidency.

Labour Gazette (*English weekly*): Labour Office, Secretariat, Fort.

Maharatia (*English weekly*): 568, Narayan Peth, Poona.

Harijan (*English weekly*): Ahmedabad.

On Looker (*English monthly*): Sir P. M. Road, Fort.

People's Age (*Communist English weekly*): 190-B, R. K. Building, Khetwadi Main Road.

Sunday Standard (*English weekly*): *Sasoon Docks, Colaba,* Bombay.

Toy Cart (*Children's English monthly*): Bombay.

CENTRAL PROVINCES

Dailies

Hitavada (English) : Mahatma Gandhi Road, Nagpur.
Maharashtra (Marathi) : Nagpur.
Nagpur Times (English) : Nagpur.

Periodicals

All-India Reporter (English Law monthly) : Nagpur.

ORISSA

Dailies

Asha (Oriya) : Cuttack.
Samaj (Oriya) : Cuttack.

Periodicals

New Orissa (English monthly) : Cuttack.

DELHI

Dailies

Daily Pratap (Urdu) : 19, Punch Kurin Road, New Delhi.
Hindustan Times (English) : Connaught Circus, New Delhi.
Indian News Chronicle (English) : Morigate, Delhi.
National Call (English) : Morigate, Delhi.
Statesman (English) : Delhi.
Watan (Urdu) : Delhi.
Tej (Urdu) : Shradhanand Bazar, Delhi.

Periodicals

Caravan (English monthly) : Connought Circus, New Delhi.
Eastern Economist (English weekly) : 52, Queensway, New Delhi.
Indian Listener (English Radio Fortnightly) : 52, Queensway, New Delhi.
Riyaset (Urdu weekly) : Delhi.
Indian Information (Govt. of India's Official Publicity Fortnightly) : Delhi.

MADRAS

Dailies

Andhra Frava (Telegu) : 100, Mount Road, Madras.
Andhra Patrika (Telegu) : 6-7, Thambu Chetty St., G. T. Madras.
Dhinamani · *(Tamil)* : 40, Mount Road, Madras.
Hindu (English) : 201, Mount Rd., Madras.
Indian Express (English) : 100, Mount Road, Madras.
Bharat Devi (Tamil) : 2-16, Mount Road, Madras.
Janmabhoomi (Telegu) : Bezwada.
Dinsari (Tamil daily) : Park Town, Madras.
Mail (English) : Mount Rd., Mad.
Mathrubhumi (Malayalam) : Calicut.
Swadesamitran (Tamil) : Mount Road, Madras.

Periodicals

Sport & Pastime (English weekly) : Mount Road, Madras.
Kalki (Tamil weekly) : Kilpauk, Madras.
Ananda Vikatan (Tamil weekly) · Madras.
Kalaimangal (Tamil mnly.) : Mad.
Andhra Jyoti (Telegu monthly) : Madras.
Free India (English weekly) : Mount Road, Madras.

UNITED PROVINCES

Dailies

Amrita Bazar Patrika (English) : Allahabad.
Leader (English) : Allahabad.
National Herald (English) : Lucknow.
Pratap (Hindi) : *Cawnpur.*
Sainik (Hindi) : Agra.
Sansar (Hindi) : Benares.
Aj (Hindi) : Benares.
Navajivan (Hindi) : Lucknow.
Quami-Awaz (Urdu) : Lucknow.

EAST PUNJAB

Daily

Tribune (English daily) : Simla.

INFORMATION BUREAUS

Press Information Bureau, Government of India—This Government of India Bureau with its offices at Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras supplies all information regarding the activities of the Government of India.

U. N. Information Centre—Theatre Communication Building, Queen's Way, New Delhi, disseminates information in the activities of the United Nations to Indian People.

U. S. Information Service—Offices at Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

British Information Service—Offices at Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

INDIAN NEWS AGENCIES

United Press of India.
Reuter & Associated Press.
Indian Press Features.

FOREIGN NEWS AGENCIES

British—Reuter
Globe Agency.
French—Agence France Presse.
U.S.S.R.—Tass News Agency.
U.S.A.—Associated Press of America; United Press of America; International News Service; Central News Agency.

BANKS IN INDIA

Classes of Banks in India: (1) Imperial Bank of India, (2) Exchange Banks whose head offices are located outside India, (3) Indian Joint Stock Banks, registered under the Indian Companies Act, (4) Indian Co-operative Banks, registered under the Indian Co-operative Societies Act, II of 1912, (5) Reserve Bank of India, (6) Indigenous bankers, (7) Land Mortgage Banks.

(1) IMPERIAL BANK OF INDIA

Imperial Bank of India was established in 1921 after amalgamation of three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras originated in the days of East India Co. The capital of the three Presidency Banks at the time of their amalgamation was Rs. 3,75,00,000 in shares of Rs. 500 each fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised under the Imperial Bank Act, 1920 was Rs. 7,50,00,000 in shares of Rs. 500 each of which Rs. 125 per share has been called up making the present capital and reserve of the Bank Rs. 11,50,53,000 of which 5,62,50,000 has been paid-up. The management of the Bank is under a Board of Directors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras. Since the advent of the Reserve Bank, the Imperial Bank while functioning as agent of the Reserve Bank of India in those places where Reserve Bank has no branches, is no longer the official Bank to the Government, and its charter has been amended to permit it to expand its activities in the field of deposit and exchange banking.

Following are its main business—(1) it is the sole agent of the Reserve Bank of India at places in Indian Union where there is a branch of the Imperial Bank of India and there is no branch of the banking department of the Reserve Bank. (2) Imperial Bank is now free to engage in foreign exchange business and also to do industrial banking.

The position of the Imperial Bank is as follows:—

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

		Paid-up Capital	*Reserves*	*Deposits*	*Cash balances*	*Invest-ments*	*Loans & Advances*
1939	..	5,63	5,60	87,84	11,09	38,02	48,28
1940	..	5,63	5,62	96,03	24,83	48,57	32,31
1941	..	5,63	5,62	108,92	15,27	64,39	58,88
1942	..	5,63	5,75	163,46	23,00	116,41	33,79
1943	..	5,63	5,85	214,53	53,36	130,20	40,60
1944	..	5,63	6,00	237,78	28,31	148,63	70,23
1945	..	5,63	6,05	237,41	29,60	154,18	72,97

(2) EXCHANGE BANKS

The main business of the Exchange Banks is financing the foreign trade of India. They purchase bills in foreign currency, make loans against the shipping bills and other documents and finance imports of gold and silver. They also play some little part in the financing of inland trade mainly the movement of goods for export or of goods imported.

The Exchange Banks furnish the immediate link with the outside world of trade and commerce. Primarily the exchange banks specialise in the finance of foreign trade and their beginning dates back to the Oriental Banking Corporation in 1842

The big Exchange Banks are—National Bank of India, Lloyds Bank, Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China, Messrs. Grindley & Ço., Honk Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Mercantile Bank of India, Eastern Bank, National City Bank of New York.

		No. of Banks.	*Capital and Reserves.*	*Deposits in India & Burma.**	*Cash Balances in* India & Burma.*
1940	..	20	128,244	85,32,81	17,19,40
1941	..	17	105,953	106,73,07	13,39,75
1942	..	16	106,686	116.85,27	12,00,96
1943	..	16	119,855	140,21,13	17,24,47
1944	..	15	133,579	165,36,93	19,10,00
1945	..	15	142,158	179,00,39	18,32,33

(3) JOINT STOCK BANKS

All the Indian Joint Stock Banks are registered under the Indian Companies Act.

The Joint Stock Banks are sub-divided into four classes, namely (*a*) those with a paid-up Capital and Reserve of Rs. 5 lakhs and over (*b*) those with paid-up Capital and Reserves between one lakh and less than Rs. 5 lakhs and two other divisions with less Capital and Reserves.

Joint Stock Banks are mainly commercial Banks. Indian Joint Stock Banks provide India's internal banking facilities. They receive deposits or mortgages, discount local bills, open cash credit accounts, advance loans against stock exchange securities, grain or cloth, buy and sell shares and transact other banking business. The agricultural business of these banks is small and is generally confined to big landholders and planters.

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*Burma figures excluded since 1942.

CLASS 'A'—*Banks having a paid-up Capital and Reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs and over.*
(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Reporting Banks	Paid-up Capital & Reserves	Deposits	Cash Balances	Investments
1942 ..	69	19,01,56	202,74,88	47,29,76	106,51,04
1943 ..	92	26,52,92	338,83,70	80,60,77	172,30,40
1944 ..	118	36,91,76	475,34,08	105,42,27	242,08,65
1945 ..	143	45,08,54	601,17,11	127,01,00	297,93,20

CLASS 'B'—*Banks having a paid-up Capital and Reserves between Re. 1 lakh and Rs. 5 lakhs.*
(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Reporting Banks	Total Paid-up Capital & Reserves	Deposits	Cash Balances	Investments
1942 ..	136	2,71,35	15,60,22	4,59,31	3,57,69
1943 ..	152	3,16,60	20,89,77	6,69,01	4,75,55
1944 ..	162	3,45,18	26,31,53	7,86,91	5,88,48
1945 ..	174	3,61,10	32,04,69	9,50,32	8,25,14

CLASS 'C'—*Banks having paid-up Capital and Reserves between Rs. 50,000 and Re. 1 lakh.*
(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Reporting Banks	Total Paid-up Capital & Reserves	Deposits	Cash Balances	Investments
1942 ..	137	37,45	4,94,58	1,55,74	79,64
1943 ..	141	98,26	6,25,96	1,97,22	1,05,07
1944 ..	113	79,56	5,82,70	1,59,52	1,17,71
1945 ..	114	80,29	7,44,60	2,03,77	1,53,05

CLASS 'D'—*Banks having paid-up Capital and Reserves less than Rs. 50,000.*
(In Thousands of Rupees)

	No. of Reporting Banks	Total Paid-up Capital & Reserves	Deposits	Cash Balances	Investments
1942 ..	133	22,50	74,86	13,20	6,21
1943 ..	161	28,63	1,59,38	44,09	14,15
1944 ..	235	46,14	3,48,62	1,04,05	34,94
1945 ..	244	49,10	4,19,42	1,21,76	49,69

(4) CO-OPERATIVE BANKS

The Co-operative Banking organization owes its origin to the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904. This Act was further amended by the Act of 1912. Under co-operative Societies Act, all classes of registered

It is now a State-owned Bank but will retain its autonomous character. The Central Board is to consist of 14 directors, all nominated. The local boards will continue as before except that their members too will be nominated.

GSL

Societies whether in themselves primary units or federations of constituent societies are spoken as 'Societies'. In actual practice, however, the primary units are in some provinces known as banks and in others as societies.

The Co-operative banking system consists of the Provincial Bank at apex, the affiliated Central Banks, and lastly the primary societies affiliated to the Central Banks. According to the rules framed under the Act, these banks can not generally lend to non-members.

The functions of Co-operative Banks are as follows:—

(1) Attracting deposits from money-lenders and professional classes. (2) Lending money to the primary co-operative societies. (3) Taking away the excess fund of a Co-operative Society and utilising it for making up the deficiency of others. (4) Supervising and guiding the actions of affiliated Societies.

CLASS 'A'—(*Capital and Reserve of Rs. 5 lakhs or over*)
(*In lakhs of Rs.*)

	No. of Banks	*Capital & Reserves*	*Deposits & Loans held*	*Cash Balances*
1939-40 ..	41	5,48,22	22,94,33	1,01,35
1940-41 ..	42	5,50,56	22,66,03	2,33,55
1041-42 ..	42	5,55,19	27,04,19	3,16,77
1942-43 ..	42	5,68,45	29,74,67	3,51,34
1943-44 ..	48	6,27,58	32,79,41	2,80,64
1944-45 ..	50	6,95,27	34.90,43	3,14,69

CLASS 'B'—(*One lakh and below 5 lakhs.*)

	No. of Banks	*Capital & Reserves*	*Deposits & Loans held*	*Cash Balances*
1939-40 ..	274	5,68,03	16,14,43	1,26,52
1940-41 ..	279	5,64,25	15,51,81	1,48,76
1941-42 ..	292	5,95,43	17,00,38	1,77,92
1942-43 ..	295	6,12,96	18,19,88	2,81,83
1943-44 ..	291	6,14,22	20,02,44	2,52,91
1944-45 ..	313	6,60,58	23,01,89	3,42,18

(5) RESERVE BANK OF INDIA

Reserve Bank has been established in India from the 1st of April, 1935 in accordance with the provisions of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934.

Nationalisation of the Bank—On September 3. 1948 Indian Parliament passed necessary legislation nationalising the Reserve Bank of India. From 1st January 1949, after 14 years the Reserve Bank of India officially began its career as a nationalized institution. The shareholders are being paid Rs. 118-10-0 for every 100 rupee share, in 3% government stock redeemable in 1970-75. The bonds will be in multiples of Rs. 100 and anything left over will be paid in cash, along with the dividend at 4% for the half year from July 1 to December 31, 1948.

The Bank's shares have been acquired at the average of their monthly market value during the period March, 1947, to February, 1948, taking the opening quotations for each month.

CSL

The Bank so far could hold only gold or sterling as cover for its currency notes, but a recent amendment of Section 3 of the Reserve Bank of India Act enabled it to hold cover in the shape of currency of any country which is a member of the International Monetary Fund. The Bank's choice of investment has thus been widened.—*A.P.I.*

The preamble to the Act states that the Bank was constituted to regulate the issue of Bank notes and keeping of reserves with a view to securing monetary stability in India and generally to operate currency and credit system of the country to its advantage. The Bank has the sole right to issue bank notes in India. It has the right to hold the cash balances of the more important commercial banks. Again, it has the right to transact government business in India, the Central and Provincial governments being required under Sec. 21 of the Act to entrust the Bank with all the money, remittance, exchange, and banking transactions and to deposit with the Bank all their cash balances free of interest. The Bank is also authorised to transact other business usually performed by Central Banks, such as the acceptance of money and deposit without interest, rediscounting of bills and the making of loans and advances, issue of demand drafts payable at its offices or agencies, the purchase and sale of securities etc.

Scheduled Bank—Any bank included in the Second Schedule of the Reserve Bank of India Act is known as Scheduled Bank. A Bank is included in the list of Scheduled Banks if it has a paid-up capital and reserves of the aggregate value of not less than 5 lakhs and is a company as defined in Clause (2) of S. 2 of Indian Companies Act, 1913 or a Corporation or a Company incorporated by or under any law in force in any place outside India.

Scheduled Banks are to keep with Reserve Bank a balance the amount of which shall not at the close of any business day be less than 5 per cent. of the demand liabilities and 2 per cent. of the time liabilities. Every Scheduled Bank shall have to send a weekly return, at the close of business on each Friday to the Central Government and to the Reserve Bank a return signed by two responsible officers showing various items.

Bank Notes—The sole right to issue bank notes in India is vested in the Reserve Bank. The issue of bank notes shall be conducted by the Bank in an Issue Department and kept wholly distinct from Banking Department.

Agricultural Credit Department—The Bank has created an Agricultural Credit Department (*a*) to maintain an expert staff to study all questions of agricultural credit, (*b*) to study the problems connected with co-operative movement, land mortgage Banks, debt legislation, etc..

A—ISSUE DEPARTMENT

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	Total Notes issued	*Gold coin & bullion*	*Sterling Securities*	*Rupee Coin*	*Rupee Securities*	*Gold coin & Sterling securities as p.c. of total Notes*
1938 ..	198,69	44,42	59,59	70,19	32,32	52·30
1939 ..	242,98	44,42	107,50	64,22	38,34	62·52
1940 ..	242,30	44,42	131,50	29,66	49,61	72·60

CSL

1941	.. 326,41	44,42	227,62	34,18	41,50	83·34
1942	.. 585,80	44,42	404,83	14,17	122,38	76·69
1943	.. 850,40	44,42	734,83	12,82	58,33	91·63
1944	.. 1,021,26	44,42	904,32	14,68	57,84	92·90
1945	.. 1,222,15	44,42	1,105,32	14,57	57,84	94·98
1946	.. 1,258,66	44,42	1,135,32	21,08	57,84	93·73
1947	.. 1,274,39	44,42	1,135,32	36,80	57,84	92·57

B—BANKING DEPARTMENT

(In lakhs of Rs.)

	Liabilities	*Assets*		*Liabilities*	*Assets*
1938 ..	36,79	36,79	1943 ..	141,81	141,81
1939 ..	44,26	44,26	1944 ..	376,80	376,80
1940 ..	79,21	79,21	1945 ..	617,38	617,38
1941 ..	70,47	70,47	1946 ..	589,46	589,46
1942 ..	96,13	96,13	1947 ..	530,61	530,61

(6) INDIGENOUS BANKS

The indigenous bankers consist mainly of *Shroffs*, small money-lenders, the loan offices in Bengal and a few other provinces and lastly the *Nidhis* and *Chit* funds in Madras.

The indigenous banks are not required to register themselves under any law and as such there is no legal definition of the term available. The special feature that distinguishes indigenous banks from mere money-lenders is that they receive deposits and deal in *hundis* in addition to making loans. Agriculturists, traders, merchants and small industrialists have to depend largely on indigenous bankers and money-lenders in places where joint stock banks do not exist. The indigenous bankers are found to render valuable services in connection with financing of internal trade and middle-sized and small industries and inland remittance work.

(7) LAND MORTGAGE BANKS

Royal Commission on Agriculture in India in 1928 and Banking Enquiry Committee in 1930 recommended that Land Mortgage Banks based on Co-operative principles are desirable in many parts of India. The principal objects of these banks should be the redemption of the land and houses of the Agriculturists and liquidation of old debts. Other objects are improvements of land and of methods of cultivation and the building of houses of agriculturists and purchase of land in special cases.

Land Mortgages Banks have been started under the auspices of the Co-operative movement in the Punjab, Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam, but the beginning is very small.

BANKING COMPANIES ACT

The Banking Companies Act of 1948 has been passed in February 1949. The features of the Act include: (1) abolition of the managing agency system, (2) prohibition of trading by banks, (3) ban on banks holding immoveable property, (4) requirements of minimum paid-up capital and reserves, (5) restriction on commission brokerage on sales

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of shares and (6) extensive powers to the Reserve Bank to supervise and inspect banks.

BANKING STATISTICS

Bank Rates

	Reserve Bank	*Bank of New York*	*Bank of England*		*Reserve Bank*	*Bank of New York*	*Bank of England*
1939	3·00	1·00	2·27	1942	3·00	1·00	2·00
1940	3·00	1·00	2·00	1943	3·00	1·00	2·00
1941	3·00	1·00	2·00	1944	3·00	1·00	2·00
				1945	3·00	1·00	2·00

General Summary of Banking business in India

1. *Capital & Reserve (Lakhs of Rs.)*

	Imp. Bank	*Jt. Stk. Banks above 5 lakhs*	*Jt. Banks bet. 1 lakh and 5 lakhs*
1938	11,18	13,15	2,41
1943	11,48	26,53	3,17
1944	11,63	36,92	3,45
1945	11,70	45,09	5,61

Scheduled Banks

	No. of Scheduled Banks		*No. of Scheduled Banks*
1938-39	51	1943-44	75
1939-40	55	1944-45	84
1940-41	59	1945-46	91
1941-42	55	1946-47	97
1942-43	61	1947-48	101

Deposits of Scheduled Banks

	Total Deposits (millions of Rs.)		*Total Deposits (millions of Rs.)*
1938-39	2,378	1942-43	4,105
1939-40	2,457	1943-44	5,994
1940-41	2,688	1944-45	7,789
1941-42	3,190	1945-46	9,140
		1946-47	10,486

2. *Deposits (Lakhs of Rs.)*

	Imp. Bank	*Exchange Banks*	*Scheduled Banks*	*Non-Scheduled Banks over 1 lakh Rs.*
1938	81,51	67,20	91,80	14.94
1943	214,53	140,21	324,50	40,23
1944	257,78	165,37	435.38	66,28
1945	259.37	179,00	541,15	92,06

3. *Cash in hand and with Banks (Percentage Proportion of Cash and balances with banks to deposits)*

	Imperial Bank	*Ind. Scheduled Banks*	*Non-Scheduled Banks over one lakh*
1938	11·0%	14·6%	12·4%
1943	24·9%	22·9%	32·4%
1944	16·0%	20·6%	35·7%
1945	16·0%	19·5%	53·6%

4. *Investments (in lakhs of Rs. and ratio of investments to their deposits)*

	Imperial Bank	%	*Ind. Scheduled Banks*	%	*Non-Scheduled Banks of 1 lakh Rs. or over*	%
1938	43,72	53·6	39,63	43·1	3,41	22·8
1945	130,20	60·7	167,02	51·5	10,41	25·0
1944	148,63	62·5	231,41	53·2	16,56	25·0
1945	154,18	59·4	278,52	51·5	27,66	30·0

5. *Loans & Advances—Proportion of total advances to deposits.*

(In lakhs of Rs.)

	Imp. Bank	*%*	*In Scheduled Banks*	*%*	*Non-Scheduled Banks*	*%*
1938 ..	38,30	47·0	48,85	53·2	11,10	74·4
1943 ..	40,60	18·9	108,93	33·6	22,45	55·8
1944 ..	70,23	29·5	157,68	36·2	33,55	50·6
1945 ..	72,97	28·1	220,91	40·8	43,75	47·5

Failure of Joint Stock Banks

	No. of Failures	*Paid-up Capital*		*No. of Failures*	*Paid-up Capital*
1939 ..	87	10,11,967	1943 ..	50	6,28,401
1940 ..	102	11,73,985	1944 ..	22	5,32,101
1941 ..	75	9,65,089	1945 ..	24	4,81,222
1942 ..	48	11,96,681			

Total amount & number of cheques cleared

	No. of cheques	*Amount (Lakhs of Rs.)*		*No. of cheques*	*Amount (Lakhs of Rs.)*
1942 ..	1,54,38,289	2,713,46	1944 ..	1,92,37,201	5,401,90
1943 ..	1,65,40,120	4,228,92	1945 ..	2,19,75,402	6,272,60

Branches of Banks

	1938	1943	1944	1945
Imperial Bank	358	404	426	433
Ind. Scheduled Banks ..	677	1,400	1,976	2,419
Exchange Banks	93	84	83	81
Non-Scheduled Banks of a lakh or over ..	..	1,161	1,654	1,934

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LABOUR INFORMATION

Labour Reform in India—Indian Government's effort to afford protection to labour had a strange origin. Legislation prior to 1881 attempted merely to regulate conditions of labour so as to help the employers and to ensure that they had a docile labour force at their disposal. The Factory Acts of 1881 and 1891 were passed chiefly because of the anxiety caused to Lancashire by the growing cotton industry of Bombay.

For 20 years after 1891, there was no further advance. In 1911, new Factories Act was passed restricting the hours of work in textile factories to 12.

The period after World War I was an era of progressive labour legislation. The Trade Union movement was born and India's association with I.L.O. supplied a powerful urge in favour of humane conditions in mines, factories and mills. In 1922 the Indian Factories Act was amended so as to embrace many more factories and working hours were reduced to a maximum of 11 hours per day. The Mines Act was similarly amended in 1923 providing for limitations of hours to 60 per week above-ground and to 24 per week below ground. It also prohibited employment in mines persons under 13 years of age. A Workman's Compensation Act providing for accidents sustained or disease contracted by workmen was also passed in 1923. Government's anxiety to preserve industrial peace led also to the enactment of Indian Trade Union Act, 1926 as well as Trade Disputes Act, 1929.

The post-war depression and the resultant industrial unrest paved the way for Government taking a deeper interest in labour problem. A *'Royal Commission on Labour'* in India was appointed in 1929 under the presidency of Rt. Hon. J. H. Whitley. Three hundred and fifty-seven recommendations were made by the Commission in its Report.

Between 1931 and the advent of provincial autonomy in 1937, the Central Government effected a number of reforms revising or enacting legislation regarding factory workers, miners, plantain labour, railwaymen, maritime workers, dock labourers, etc., in the light of the recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Labour. Perhaps the most advanced social legislation of this period was the enactment of the Payment of Wages Act in 1936.

Quickened interest in labour reform was shown by new autonomous provincial governments which came into being in 1937 and which instituted a number of enquiries and enacted a series of legislative measures for amelioration of the working classes. But when the Congress Governments resigned in 1939, there was an end to this progress in the provinces.

Industrial Unrest—Concerted action in the form of strikes for redressing grievances was not resorted to by workers in India before 1919. That year saw the outbreak of industrial strife on an unprecedented scale. The cause of this strife was mainly economic, due to depression of trade and unemployment which set in after the World War I.

The Trade Union Act was passed in 1926. This ameliorative measure ensured a short, comparative peace. But fresh outbreak of strikes began in 1928.

By this time, a degree of militancy had crept into the ranks of Indian workers. Political agitation with revolutionary slogans and flag became common with Indian workers. At this time Leftist was controlling the entire organised labour and strikes spread wide. Government passed Trade Disputes Act in 1929 penalising sympathetic strikes and those designed to coerce the government. The Public Safety Bill of 1928 was certified by the Viceroy and was applied against the prominent Left-wingers of the labour movement. The growing agitation was met by the Government appointing a Royal Commission led by Hon. Mr. J. H. Whitley.

With the advent of popular government in the Provinces in 1937, there was rapid quickening of the disputes. This led some of the provincial governments to intervene in labour disputes in the form of committees of enquiry and arbitration.

Labour Condition during World War II—The war years 1939-45 saw a remarkable expansion of Indian industries and unparalled rise in employment. At the same time industrial relations were subjected to increasing strain. There were numerous struggles in respect of wages, dearness allowance, bonus and sharing of war profits. Direct action was resorted by workers all over the country.

To save India's war production, the Centre adopted extensive measures to prevent trade disputes—(1) In 1942 the Government of India promulgated Rule 81-A of the Defence of India Rules empowering Government to prohibit strikes and lockouts, to require employers and workmen to observe for specified periods such terms and conditions of employment as may be prescribed to refer any trade dispute for conciliation or adjudication and enforce all or any of the decisions of the adjudicator. (2) Government established a new organisation consisting of Chief Labour Commissioner and Deputy Labour Commissioner assisted by Regional Commissioner at Bombay, Calcutta and Lahore, one Central Inspector of Industrial Canteens, nine conciliation officers and 30 Labour Inspectors, a Coal Mines Welfare Commissioner to look after welfare work in coal mines, a Controller of Emigrant Labour to look after the interests of plantation labour.

Post-War Condition—With the end of the war there was an enormous increase in the number of disputes. Inflation and scarcity of foodstuffs, cloth and other consumer goods, the bleak prospect of unemployment owing to demobilisation and retrenchment helped to strain the feelings between employers and the employed. Added to these, is the new-born political consciousness among the workers.

With a view to preventing the unrest from taking serious turn, the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 was passed by the Indian Legislature. It authorises the setting up of a machinery for two-fold purpose of prevention and settlement of labour disputes. The adaptations in recent times of tripartite consultations and negotiations of the model of International Labour Organisation has helped to prevent and settle disputes. Labour Conference and its Standing Labour Committees have furthered frank discussions of labour problems. Series of important measures are pending before the Indian Legislature for the welfare of Indian Workers.

India & I.L.O.—India has been a member of the I.L.O. from the very inception in 1919. Since 1922 India has held a permanent seat on its Governing Body as a state of chief industrial importance.

In the I.L.O. itself, she has occupied an important position, both as one of the main representatives of Asia and as a leading Industrial country in the world.

The Indian delegation to the annual conference of I.L.O. is composed of four delegates, two of whom represents Governments and one each the organised workers and employers.

For a long time, Indian States were not represented in I.L.O. Since 1945 however, a States representative has been included in the Indian delegation.

India holds the pride of place in Asia in the matter of ratification of Coventions adopted by the I.L.O. Sixteen have already been ratified and more are being implemented.

The holding of regional conference of the I.L.O. in Asia of which the first was held in New Delhi in 1947 is a new development which will enable the I.L.O. to give greater attention to the special problems of Asia.

Factory Legislation—The Indian Factories Act XXV of 1934 is the comprehensive Act amending factory legislations of 1881, 1891, 1911, 1922 as amended by Acts of 1923, 1926 and 1931. This Act has been amended on many occasions by factory legislations of 1935, 1937, 1940, 1941, 1944, 1945, 1946 and 1948.

The main provisions of the Factories Act are—(1) It covers all manufacturing establishments employing 20 or more persons and using mechanical powers. (2) *Classification of Factories* into seasonal and perennial factories. (3) *Age and sex groups*—Factory workers divided into four age and sex groups: (*a*) adult males, (*b*) adult females, (*c*) children of both sexes *i.e.,* over 12 and under 15 years of age, (*d*) adolescents *i.e.,* persons of both sexes over 15 and under 17 years of age. (4) *Hours of work*—11 hours per day and 60 hours per week for seasonal factories and 10 hours per day and 54 hours per week for perennial factories. (5) *Spread over*—is meant the limitation of the period of consecutive hours during which the daily limits of work may be availed of by the owner or occupier of a factory. (6) *Rest intervals and Holidays.* (7) *Holidays with pay*—provides for compensatory holidays and holidays with pay. (8) *Welfare*—provision is made for the maintenance of a suitable and sufficient supply of water, adequate shelter for rest in factories, reservation of suitable rooms for use of children and women, maintenance of adequate First Aid appliances. (9) *Overtime.* (10) *Security of Factory structures.*

New Factories Act of 1948—A new Factories Act has been passed in the Constituent Assembly of India in 1948 to revise the Factories Act of 1934. The principle underlying this Act is that no one shall employ any worker on any manufacturing process without ensuring his safety, health and welfare. The scope of the Act has been widened considerably so that it will now apply to all work places where 10 or more persons are employed and power is used. For the first time, the provisions have been extended to factories where even though no power is used, 20 or more persons are employed. The Act provides for plans of all new factory buildings to be submitted for prior approval. The Act will also ensure that worker gets holidays with pay.

The allied Acts are as follows:— (1) *Industrial Employment (Standing orders) Act XX of 1946* which require employers of industrial establishments of one hundred or more workers to frame draft "Standing orders" relating to the terms of service governing the employment of the workers and submit them to the Certifying Officer for certification. (2) *Industrial Statistics Act* (XIX of 1942) is designed to enable Provincial Governments to collect information and statistics relating to factories and relating to conditions of life and work of the workers, commodity prices, attendance living conditions indebtedness, rents of the dwelling houses and wages and other earnings. (3) *Weekly Holidays Act* (XVIII of 1942) gives option for the application of this Act in any province which has no shop legislation. This Act provides one paid weekly holiday.

The Legislations concerning *shops and commercial establishments* providing holidays with pay were passed in Bombay in 1939, in Bengal, Punjab and Sind in 1940, in C.P. and Madras in 1947.

Plantation Legislation—The main legislation regarding plantation labour is *Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act* XXII of 1932 which seeks to regularise the condition of recruitment of plantation labour in the tea gardens of Assam. It provides for the appointment of a Controller of Emigrant Labour to safeguard the rights and interest of emigrant labour, such as repatriation after three years of service, rights of repatriation of family.

Mining Legislation—The main legislation to regulate the condition of employment in mines was made by the Indian Mines Act (IV of 1923) amended by Acts of 1928, 1931, 1935, 1936, 1937, 1940, 1945 and 1946. The term 'Mine' included any excavation irrespective of depth for obtaining minerals. The main provisions are—(*a*) prohibition of the employment of children under 13 years below the ground, (*b*) compulsory weekly holidays, (*c*) weekly hours of work limited to 54 hours below ground and 60 above ground, (*d*) prohibition of the employment of women underground.

The allied acts are (1) *Coal Mines Safety Stowing Act* (XIX of 1939) to make provision for safety in coal mines. (2) *Mines Maternity Benefit Act* (XIX of 1941) to regulate the employment of women in mines for a certain period before and after child birth and to provide for payment of maternity benefit to them. (3) *Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act* (XXII of 1946) to constitute a fund for financing the activities to promote the welfare of labour employed in the mica mining industry. (4) *Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act* (XXXII of 1947) provides for the levy of an excise duty for establishment of Coal Mines Labour Housing and General Welfare Fund. (5) *Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Scheme Act 1948.* It is for the first time in India that Provident Fund are sought to be set up under law providing for the introduction of a compulsory Provident Fund and Bonus Scheme for the benefit of coal miners.

Transport Labour Legislation—There is no comprehensive labour legislation in India for transport services such as railways, road transport, docks, trams, buses, mercantile marine and inland water transport. But provisions are scattered here and there in *Indian Railways Act* (by amendment XIV of 1930), Indian Factories Act, Indian Mines Act, etc. *Indian Dock Labourers Act* (XIX of 1934 was passed in 1934 with the object of making provisions for the safety of persons engaged in the work at the docks from practically every danger to which they may be exposed by their calling. *Another* Act known as *Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act* (XI of 1948) was passed directing the preparation of schemes by Central and Provincial Governments for registration of dock workers with a view to regulate their recruitment and registration for securing greater regularity of employment and to provide for terms and conditions of employment of dock-workers.

Wages Legislation.—The most important measure in this connection is *Payment of Wages Act* (IV of 1936). This Act regulates the mode of payment of wages to persons employed in any factory, railway or in any industrial establishment. The main provisions are—(1) the Act applies to wages less than two hundred rupees a month. (2) No wage period shall exceed one month. (3) Workers are required to be paid within a period of 7 days after the end of wage period. (4) Maximum amount deducted as fines is not to exceed in any month, half an anna in the rupee of the worker's earnings. (5) The Act empowers to withhold wages in case of stay-in-strike. Another important act is *Minimum Wages Act* (IX of 1948) which gives a great measure of income security to Industrial Labour in India. The act empowers the Provincial or Central Governments to fix minimum rates of wages in respect of scheduled employments after due enquiries.

Social Insurance Legislation.—*The Workmen's Compensation Act* (VIII of 1923) is the most important piece of Social Insurance Legislation in India. It provides that compensation should ordinarily be given to workmen who had sustained injuries by accidents arising out of or in course of employment. Compensation should also be allowed in certain cases of diseases. Another important legislation in the group is the *Employer's Liability Act* (XXIV of 1938), which seeks to declare that certain defences shall not be raised in suits in respect of injuries sustained by workmen. Another important act passed in 1948 is the *Employee's State Insurance Act* of 1948, which ensures the right of labour to social security. The benefits to the worker will comprise medical care and treatment, a cash sickness benefit at over half his average daily wage for a maximum period of 56 days, a maternity benefit for women at the rate of 12 annas a day for a period of 12 weeks and disablement and defendant's benefit in the form of pensions for employment injury or death. *Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act* was passed in 1948 for the compusory provident fund and bonus scheme for the benefit of coal mines.

The State Insurance Corporation was inaugurated in New Delhi on October 6, 1948. The present scheme applies in the first instance to all perennial factories. It provides five types of benefits, *viz.*, sickness benefit, maternity benefit, disablement benefit, dependants' benefit and medical benefit. Sickness benefit is payable for not more than 56 days in any continuous period of 365 days at the rate of about half the average daily wages. Closely connected with sickness benefit is medical benefit which is to be rendered according to a certain prescribed standard. Maternity benefit is payable at the fixed rate of 12 annas a day for a total period of

12 weeks of which not more than six can precede the confinement. Disablement and dependants' benefits at weekly rates prescribed in the Act are payable in lieu of compensation or damages under the Workmen's Compensation Act. This scheme has two-fold limitations—firstly, it does not cover all the risks by which the insured employee is ordinarily exposed and secondly, it extends to a small fraction of the population, *i.e.* workers in organised industries.

Child Labour Legislation—Following two acts have been passed to stop serious abuses in connection with the employment of children in workshops to which Factories Act did not apply. The main act is *Employment of Children Act* (XXVI of 1938) which raises the minimum age of children employed in the handling of goods on railways and at ports to fifteen years. No child who has not completed his twelfth year can be employed in any of the scheduled occupations, *i.e.*, Bidi making, carpet making, cement manufacture, cloth printing, dyeing and weaving, manufacture of matches, explosives and fire-works, mica cutting and splitting, shellac manufacture, soap manufacture, tanning and wool cleaning.

The special provisions regarding the employment of children have been made in (*a*) *Indian Mines Act* (VIII of 1923, (*b*) *Indian Merchant Shipping Act* (VIII of 1923), (*c*) *Indian Port's Act* (XV of 1908) and (*d*) *Factories Act* (XXV of 1934).

The next important act is the *Children Pledging of Labour Act* (II of 1933), which lays down that any agreement to pledge the labour of a child below fifteen years by the parent in return of any payment or benefit will be null and void and the parent is liable to be fined upto Rs. 50 and the employer upto Rs. 200.

Industrial Disputes Legislation—The first act is the *Trade Disputes Act* (VI of 1929) which authorises the Central and Provincial Governments to establish two tribunals *i.e.*, Board of Conciliation or the Court of Enquiry to investigate and settle a dispute when it arises or is apprehended. The act renders punishable by fine or imprisonment, lightning strikes or lockouts without fourteen days notice in Public Utility concerns or any system of conservancy or sanitation.

The most epochmaking act, regarding the industrial dispute is the *Industrial Disputes Act* (XIV of 1947). The main provisions are (1) the employer of industrial establishment employing hundred or more workmen to constitute a Works Committee, to remove the cause of friction between the employer and the employed. (2) Reference to Industrial tribunal to an industrial dispute where appropriate government considers it to do so. The award of the Tribunal will remain in force for a period not exceeding one year. (3) Appointment of Conciliation officers. Conciliation in all disputes in public utility service is compulsory and optional in the case of other industrial establishments. (4) Establishment of Court of Enquiry. (5) Prohibition of strikes and lockouts in Public Utility Service unless notice has been given within six weeks of the strikes or lockouts. (6) Prohibition of strikes and lockouts during the pendency of conciliation proceeding before a board and seven days after the conclusions of such proceedings. (1) Prohibition of strikes and lockouts during the proceedings before a tribunal and two months after the conclusion of such proceedings.

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Employee's State Insurance Corporation was inaugurated by the Government of India in October, 1948. It is a compulsory insurance for health and accident benefits on a national scale. For the present, the State Insurance will benefit only to workers of organised industries. The Insurance Corporation would in the first instance apply to all perennial factories covering some 20 lakhs of industrial workers. It provided for five types of benefits—sickness benefit, maternity benefit, disablement benefit, dependant's benefit and medical benefit. Sickness benefit would be payable for not more than 56 days in any continuous period of 365 days at the rate of about half the average daily wages, medical benefit would be rendered according to certain prescribed standards. Maternity benefit would be payable at the fixed rate of 12 annas a day for a total period of 12 weeks of which not more than six could precede confinement. Disablement and dependant benefit at weekly rates were payable in lieu of compensation or damage under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

Trade Union Legislation—*Indian Trade Union Act* (XVI of 1926) was passed which defined the legal position of trade unions and provides for their registration. It makes provisions for (1) conditions governing the registration of Trade Unions. (2) The obligation to which a Trade Union is subject after registration. (3) Rights and privileges accorded to registered unions. (4) Immunity from civil and criminal liability to the executives and members in respect of strikes. (5) Registration of Trade Unions is optional but auditing of the funds is compulsory.

Cotton Industries Legislation—There are two acts under this category. The first act is *The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act* (XII of 1945) which provides for the better regulation of cotton ginning and cotton pressing factories. Another act is *Cotton Industry (Statistics) Act* (XX of 1926) to provide for the regular submission of return or quantities of cotton goods manufactured and cotton yarn spun in India.

Industrial Relations—The Trade Union Act of 1926 gave legal staus to legitimate trade union activities. As the employers were generally somewhat reluctant to enter into negotiations with trade unions of the employees, the Trade Union (Amendment) Act 1947 provided recognition in certain circumstances. Works Committees and Industrial Tribunals have been set up to promote industrial peace and healthy trade unionism. Besides *Indian Labour Conference* consisting of representatives of government, employers and workers and *Standing Labour Committee*, *Tripartite Industrial Committees* have been set up in various industries.

An important landmark in the history of industrial relations in this country has been the *Industrial Truce Resolution* adopted by the Industries Conference in December 1947 and accepted by all the parties at the Labour Conference in April 1948, by which employers and workers agreed to maintain industrial peace for a period of three years with a view to stepping up industrial production which has been declining of late. The parties further agreed to make the fullest use of statutory and other machinery for the resolution of industrial disputes in a just and peaceful manner.

Central Advisory Council—Government of India on September 29, 1948 have set up a Tripartite Central Advisory Council with a view to ensuring the fullest co-operation between labour and management and the maintenance of stable and friendly relations between them.

The main functions of this council will be to advise the governments of the measures to be taken to achieve their objectives as set up in the resolution on industrial policy dated April 6, 1948. In particular, the council will advise the government in the determination of fair wages to labour, fair return on capital employed, reasonable reserves and labour's share of the surplus profits, on the methods by which labour could co-operate with employers in securing an increase of production; and for the regulation of relation between employers and labour.

Philadelphia Charter —The General Conference of I.L.O. in Philadelphia adopted the declaration known as Philadelphia charter which is regarded as the Charter of Freedom for the Labour throughout the world. The charter declares, (1) Labour is not a commodity. (2) Freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustain progress. (3) Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere. (4) The War against want requires to be carried on with unrelenting vigour within each nation and by continuous and concerted international effort in which representatives of workers, and employers, enjoying equal status with those of governments, join with them in free discussion and democratic decision with a view to the promotion of common welfare.

Bereau of Mines–Government of India have decided to set up a Bureau of Mines to co-ordinate the mineral production and to introduce and enforce compliance with the law or regulations under which mining operations are undertaken or carried.

Lady Welfare Workers—Government of India has organised a Preliminary Training Course for Coal Mines' Welfare Worker (*Kamin Kalyan Sevikas*) and it was inaugurated on the 28th May, 1947. The scheme provides for the establishment of 40 demonstration centres spread out suitably over the coal fields of West Bengal and Bihar, for spreading knowledge of special craft and also arrange recreational and educational facilities to women miners.

Industrial Committee on Coal Mining —The Government of India have set up an Industrial Committee on coal mining for joint consultation and discussion for improvement of the social and working condition in coal mining industry.

Five Year Plan --India's Five Year Plan launched in 1946 by the Hon. Mr. Jagjivan Ram, Minister of Labour, Central Government, aims at a uniform co-ordinated labour policy for the entire country to promote social security and industrial peace, ensure fair wages, satisfactory conditions of work and a higher standard of living and provide for education, and training and full employment. The plan embraces not only workers in organised industries but also others such as agriculture, commercial undertakings and organised industries.

According to the plan (1) the proposed Health Insurance Scheme will provide medical treatment and monetary relief during sickness, maternity benefits on an extended scale and adequate compensation in case of accidents. (2) Government's policy in regard to wages has been stated as promotion of fair wage agreements. The Five Year Plan proposes to standardise occupational terms and wages in all the major industries and to rationalise rates of dearness allowances, (3) measures to improve working conditions include the restoration of work to an 8 hour day in mines; a revision of present Factories Act prescribing better standards in regard to lighting, ventilation, safety, health and welfare workers; (4) revision of the Mines Act to bring about similar improvement in mines; (5) Regulation of hours of work, rest periods and holidays with pay workers in commercial undertaking; (6) organisation of adequate inspection services in the administration and enforcement of labour laws; (7) Plan proposes to eliminate contract labour as far as possible, to extend Employment Exchange Services to all classes of workers, (8) with a view to promoting industrial peace, the plan contemplates legislation to enable the healthy growth of trade unionism, to provide for conciliation and adjudication of disputes and to appoint joint Works Committee to smother day to day difficulties in every undertaking; (9) in labour welfare, provision of canteens and creches, facilities for education and recreation and opening of health camps are emphasised.

TRADE UNIONS IN INDIA

The trade union movement in India was born with the formation of strike committees after the end of World War I, when there was an outburst of industrial strife. The first attempt at trade union organisation, with regular membership of workers in an industrial centre, was when Mr. B. P. Wadia founded the Madras Labour Union in 1918. It did excellent work in redressing the grievances of workers, but in 1921 the law was made use of against it by employers who obtained an order from the High Court restraining the Union leaders. This event focussed the attention of the public on the need for trade union legislation which did not exist then in the country.

Meanwhile, in 1920, in Ahmedabad, an association of workers was formed, which has become a model union. It was unique in its constitution and in its leadership. Under the guidance of Mahatma Gandhi the Ahmedabad Textile, Labourers' Association has been able to build up a solidarity which is unrivalled. The Union is one of the strongest in the country. It claims to have achieved substantial benefits for workers and has developed extensive welfare schemes. The chief importance of the Union lies in the fact that it has devised an elaborate system of joint conciliation and arbitration with the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association by which this textile centre has been almost free from strikes.

The year 1920 also saw the establishment of the All-India Trade Union Congress. The main impetus to its founding was the association of India with the International Labour Organisation. The misgiving that 'yes-men' would be nominated as worker's representatives on the India delegation, is said to have moved labour leaders to form the All-India Trade Union Congress.

The passing of the Indian Trade Unions Act of 1926 gave not only recognition but also legal status to trade unions. Their executives and members were granted immunity from civil and criminal liability in respect of strikes.The act also allowed the funds of the registered unions to be spent for the conduct of trade disputes and for the provision of benefits to its members.

With the awakening of political consciousness and the on-rush of socialistic doctrines in the country, there was a split between the Moderate and Left-wing elements amongst trade unionists. The moderate element under the leadership of Mr. N. M. Joshi seceded from the Trade Union Congress and formed the National Federation of Trade-Unions. This followed the Nagpur Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress held under the presidency of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, when resolutions were adopted favouring the affiliation of the All-India Trade Union Congress to International Communist Organisations and for the boycott of the Royal Commission on Labour, the International Labour Organisation and the Round Table Conferences. A further split occurred at the next session of the All-India Trade Union Congress held in 1931.

After six years of disunity, differences were composed and the parent body was recognised as the central organisation for all working classes. However, it was not until 1938 that the two bodies combined into one central organisation. The Trade Union Congress abandoned the hammer and sickle on the red flag and coalesced with the National Federation.

Attitude to the Second World War was responsible for another split in labour ranks in 1940. While the Trade Union Congress adhered to the principle of neutrality, the Seamen's Union at Calcutta and a section led by Mr. M. N. Roy wished to support war efforts. The new Indian Federation of Labour was started with Mr. Jamnadas Mehta as President and Mr. M. N. Roy as Secretary.

Some of the strongest unions in India are those of railwaymen, Post and Telegraph workers and printers. The All-India Railwaymen's Federation has 15 affiliated unions with a total membership of 129,074.

The strike wave which started after the end of the Second World War inclined the leaders of the Indian National Congress to form new organisation for workers. The Congress President Acharya, J. B. Kripalani, launched in May 1946, the new *Indian National Trade Union Congress.* The policy of this Union is to use the weapon of strike only as the very last resort. The I.N.T.U.C. has now gained strength so much so that it is now regarded as the most representative body of the three Trade Unions in India. The credentials committee of I.L.O. accepted in 1948 the credentials of I. N. T. U. C.

The Socialist Party of India has recently started a *Socialist Indian Labour Congress.* So we have at present four trade unions: A.I.T.U.C. controlled by the Communist, Congress controlled I.N.T.U.C., Royist controlled Federation of Labour and Socialist Indian Labour Congress.

A sound and healthy growth of trade unions has been recognised by the Government to be necessary for the development of harmonious relations between employers and workers. With a view to giving trade unions a new status in collective bargaining, a Bill has been recently introduced in the Legislature and is under consideration. When this bill becomes law, employers would be compelled to bargain with the representatives of a recognised union. If unfair practices are resorted to by a union, it will lose its recognition.

Trade Unionism is still in its formative stage in the country. Predominance of political and other ideologies have been impeding the development of healthy trade union practices. With the dawn of freedom in India and the establishment of the National Government, trade unions may be expected to take larger and keener interest in the improvement of workers' conditions and to march from strength to strength.

TRADE UNIONS IN INDIA

	No.	Membership	Total income (Rs.)		No.	Membership	Total income (Rs.)
1933-34 ..	191	237,369	11,19,936	1939-40 ..	667	399,119	13,82,176
1934-35 ..	213	208,071	10,34,119	1940-41 ..	727	513,832	71,38,100
1935-36 ..	241	284,918	10,90,046	1941-42 ..	747	573,520	....
1936-37 ..	262	268,326	12,44,927	1942-43 ..	693	685,299	15,96,984
1937-38 ..	420	257,306	10,60,105	1943-44 ..	818	780,967	23,18,780
1938-39 ..	562	390,112	13,13,977	1944-45 ..	865	889,388	19·4 (lakhs)

Factories in India

	No. of Factories	No. of Notified Factories	Accidents	Average daily No. of women, adolescents, children
1942 ..	12,527	2,505	54,174	2,99,838
1943 ..	13,209	2,680	59,176	2,99,838
1944 ..	14,071	..	67,322	....

Industrial Disputes in India

	No. of Disputes	Workers involved	Loss of man-days		No. of Disputes	Workers involved	Loss of man-days
1935 ..	145	114,000	973,000	1941 ..	369	291,054	3,330,503
1936 ..	157	169,000	2,358,000	1942 ..	694	777,650	5,779,964
1937 ..	379	648,000	8,982,000	1943 ..	716	525,088	2,342,287
1938 ..	399	401,076	9,198,708	1944 ..	659	550,015	3,447,306
1939 ..	406	409,189	4,992,795	1945 ..	820	747,530	4,054,499
1940 ..	322	452,539	7,577,281	1946 ..	1,629	1,961,948	12,317,762
				1947*	1,811	1,840,784	16,562,666

*Excluding Pakistan

Workmen's Compensation in India

	Total No. of cases	Total compensation paid (Rs.)		Total No. of cases	Total compensation paid (Rs.)
1933 ..	14,559	8,13,949	1939 ..	38,681	15,09,327
1934 ..	16,890	8,68,847	1940 ..	41,015	19,38,476
1935 ..	22,999	11,61,465	1941 ..	39,045	15,84,293
1936 ..	28,510	14,64,180	1942 ..	44,443	18,69,359
1937 ..	29,645	12,88,764	1943* ..	44,826	22,83,991
1938* ..	35,965	14,32,723	1944* ..	31,581	16,96,494

*Excludes figures of Sind.

*Excludes figures of Bombay.

*Excludes figures of Bombay and Madras.

Factory Employees in India

	Average daily No. of persons employed		Average daily No. of persons employed
1938	1,740,331	1943	2,436,312
1939	1,751,137	1944	2,520,251
1940	1,844,428	1945	2,642,977
1941	2,156,377	1946	2,642,977
1942	2,282,237		

CINEMA IN INDIA

Cinema industry is undoubtedly one of the leading industries of India. It occupies eighth place among the industries of India.

There are at present, about 60 studios in operation throughout India, with more than 250 films producing companies participating. No less than 10 crores of rupees have been invested in this industry employing about 19,000 persons apart from stray employments. The products of this industry support 2,013 cinema houses with a sitting capacity of about 14½ lacs. An average of 4,000 artists and technical personnel are employed on sales, distribution and incidental activities. And the industry is a very good customer. There are nearly 150 distributors all over India of whom nine are distributors of foreign films.

The two greatest defects to the growth of Indian films are: (1) lack of co-ordination among producers, (2) language difficulty; for language in India change every four hundred miles except perhaps in the case of Hindusthani. It is estimated that cost of production of an average film was Rs. 80,000. Film industry in India now occupies eighth place among industries of India. There are four films censorship Boards in India at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and the Punjab.

Among the provinces, Bombay leads in films production. Two-thirds of the annual Indian film production comes from Bombay Studios, with Bengal and Madras coming next.

Taxation—The industry is now under the following taxations:—(1) Import duty of raw films and production and projection machinery, (2) Terminal or Octroi tax by most district municipalities, (3) Government Electricity duty, (4) Entertainment tax, (5) Income Tax, super tax and excess profits tax, (6) Advertisement tax on Cinema publicity on screen levied by many municipalities.

Gross Receipts of Indian Cinema Industry

	Lakhs		*Lakhs*
1942-43	352	1944-45	692
1943-44	596	1945-46	789

Films

	Raw Films		*Exposed Films*	*Value (a)*
	Footage	*Value (Rs.)*		
1939-40	83,000,000	31,00,000	24,000,000	54,00,000
1940-41	70,000,000	....	....	....
1941-42	93,000,000	....	....	....
1942-43	86,553,000	....	....	....
1943-44	78,758,000	29,79,999	....	....
1944-45	87,213,284	29,59,497	....	....
1945-46	80,893,563	29,14,396	16,22,682	45,45,814

Countries of Origin Feature Films

The following table gives the country of origin of feature films exhibited in India for the year 1937 to 1946:—

Year	*Foreign*	*Indian*	*Year*	*Foreign*	*Indian*
1937 ..	.. 395	180	1942 ..	.. 197	165
1938 ..	.. 277	163	1943 ..	.. 212	183
1939 ..	.. 244	146	1944 ..	.. 298	142
1940 ..	.. 201	162	1945 ..	.. 332	98
1941 ..	.. 169	137	1946 ..	.. 364	200

Films in Different Languages

	1943	1944	1945	1946		1943	1944	1945	1946
Hindi ..	98	88	67	151	Marwari ..	1	—	—	2
Bengali ..	20	12	9	14	Guzrati ..	—	—	—	1
Tamil ..	11	13	11	13	Arabic ..	1	—	—	—
Telegu ..	4	5	4	10	Kanarese ..	4	—	1	—
Marathi ..	7	5	—	—	Malayalam	20	12	9	14
Karnataki	4	..	1	—	Urdu ..	—	—	6	9
Punjabi ..	3	1	—	—					

Production

	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947		1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Bombay	100	85	60	150	195	Madras	17	16	17	22	37
Bengal	27	18	18	22	—	Punjab	5	5	4	4	—

Miscellaneous Statistics

Total sitting accommodation—14,50,000.

Aproximate workers in Cinema Trade—70,000.

Travelling Cinemas—300.

Capital invested—Rs. 25,00,00,000.

No. of Studio—68.

Approximate No. of Halls—1,713.

Landmarks of Cinema in India

1907 First cinema house for showing foreign picture was opened in Calcutta by late J. F. Madan.

1913 D. Phalke of Bombay is the first Indian to lay foundation of film industry by producing mythological play *Harischandra* measuring 3,700 ft. which was released at Coronation Cinema, Bombay April, 1913.

1917 First Indian film produced in Bengal is *Nala Damayanti* by Madan Theatres started by late J. F. Madan.

1931 *Alam Ara* is the first Indian talkie produced at Imperial Studio, Bombay. It was released on 14th March, 1931. The second talkie was *Shirin Farhad* produced by Madan Theatre, Ltd., Calcutta.

1931 Prabhat Studio's *Sairendhri* is the first Indian colour film though it was coloured in Germany. First cine-colour picture done in India was Imperial's *Kishan Kanya*.

Karma is the first Indian English film (talkie) by the late Himansu Rai the founder of Bombay Talkies but produced mainly in England under European supervision.

1939 Silver Jubilee of the Flm Industry in India celebrated by holding a Congress and Exhibition in Bombay.

CSL

1940 *Court Dancer* is the first full length sound Indian English film made in this country under purely Indian supervision.

LEADING INDIAN COMPANIES

Bombay—
Rajkamal Kalamandir.
Bombay Talkies.
Minerva Movietone.
Central Studios.
Ranjit Movietone.
Filmistan.
Bombay Cinetone.
Famous Pictures.
Prakash Pictures.

Calcutta—
Indra Movietone.
New Theatres.
East India Films.
Kali Films.
Bharat Luxmi Pictures.
Radha Films.
Bengal National Studios

Poona—
Prabhat Film Co.
Saraswati Cinetone.
Ranjit Movietone Co.
Atre Pictures.

Madras—
Bharat Movietone.
Jaya Films.
Gamini Studios.

LEADING FOREIGN PRODUCERS

Universal (U.S.A.)
Metro-Goldwyn-Meyer (U.S.A.)
R.K.O. Radio Pictures (U.S.A.)
Warner Bros. (U.S.A.)
British Lion Film Corporation (English).
Gainsborough Pictures (English).
20th Century Fox (U.S.A.)
Columbia (U.S.A.)
United Artists (U.S.A.)

MOTION PICTURE AWARDS

The Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences (America) confers awards of merit annually to recognise outstanding achievements in Motion Pictures.

1928—Wings (*Paramount*)
1929—Broadway Melody (*M.G.M.*)
1930—All Quiet On the Western Front (*Universal*)
1931—Cimarron (*R.K.O.*)
1932—Grand Hotel (*M.G.M.*)
1933—Cavalcade (*Fox*)
1934—It Happened One Night (*Columbia*)
1935—Mutiny On the Bounty (*M.G.M.*)
1936—The Great Ziegfeld (*M.G.M.*)
1937—Life of Emile Zola (*Warner Bros.*)
1938—You Can't Take It With You (*Columbia*)
1939—Gone With The Wind (*Selznick International*)
1940—Rebecca (do)
1941—How Green Was My Valley (*20th Cen. Fox*)
1942—Mrs. Miniver (*M.G.M.*)
1943—Casablanca (*Warner Bros.*)
1944—Going My Way (*Paramount*)
1945—The Lost Weekend (*Paramount*)
1946—Best Years Of Our Lives (*R.K.O.*)
1947—Gentleman's Agreement (*20th Century Fox*)

BEST BRITISH PICTURES

1945-46—Piccadilly Incident (*Associated British Producers*)
1946-47—The Courtnays Of Curzon St. (*Wilcox*)

SPORTS SECTION

INDIAN CRICKET

Vernon's Team– First English team visited India in the year 1888-89. It was captained by famous Middlesex cricketer, C. F. Vernon. Twelve matches were played, of which they won ten, lost one and drew one.

Lord Hawke's Team—Lord Hawke, the famous English cricketer brought out another English team in the year 1893. The team played 23 matches in India, of which they won 15, lost two and drew six.

Oxford University Authentics—This English team visited India in the year 1902-3. They played 19 matches, of which they won 12, lost two and drew five.

Indian Team' Visit –Parsi team visited England in 1886 and 1888 and in 1911; H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala took a First Indian Team to England which gained much experience in English Cricket. Altogether 23 games were played, of which they won six, lost fifteen and drew two.

Other Visits—The first M. C. C. team to tour India under the leadership of Arthur Gilligan in 1926-27 played 34 matches, of which 11 were won, none lost and 23 drawn.

D. R. Jardine's team in 1933-34, played 34, won 17, drew 16 and lost one.

The unofficial Australian side in 1935-36, skippered by J. S. Ryder, won 11 out of 23 games, lost three, and shared honours in nine games.

In 1937-38 Lord Tennyson's team played 24, won eight, lost five and drew 11.

First Indian vs. England Team, 1932—The first official Indian team visited England in 1932 under the captaincy of C. K. Naidu. Out of 26 First Class engagements Indian team won nine, lost eight and drew nine. Played in England.

Second India vs. England Team, 1934–Played in India under the captaincy of C. K. Nayadu (India) and D. R. Jardine (England).

Third India vs. England Team, 1936—Played in England and was captained by Maharajkumar of Vizianagram. Playing 28 First Class matches, India won only four matches, 12 lost and 12 drawn.

Fourth India vs. England Team 1946—This All-India team was captained by Nawab of Pataudi. Of 29 First Class matches played, 11 were won, 4 lost and 14 drawn. Played in England.

Australian Services XI in India, 1945-46—Played 9, won 1, lost 2, drawn 6, including three Tests, won 1, lost 0, drawn 2.

First Indo-Australian Tests, 1947-48—Played in Australia: five Tests played, of which India lost 4, drew one. Altogether 20 matches played; won 5, lost 7, drawn 8.

India vs. West Indies, 1948-49 –Five test matches were played: 1 won by West Indies and 4 drawn.

India-England Test Matches*

	Won	*Drawn*	*Winner*		*Won*	*Drawn*	*Winner*
1 (1932) ..	1	0	England	3 (1936) ..	2	1	England
3 (1934) ..	2	1	England	3 (1946) ..	1	2	England

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*1932, 1936 and 1946 matches played in England and 1934 played in India.

Highest Totals for an Innings

By England			By India		
571 (8 wkts.)	Manchester	1936	390 (5 wkts.)	Manchester	1936
471 (8 wkts.)	Oval ..	1936	331	Oval ..	1946
438	Bombay ..	1936	312	Oval ..	1936
428	at Lords ..	1946			
403	Calcutta	1933-34			

Lowest Totals for an Innings

By England		By India	
134 Lords	1936	93 Lords	1936

Indo-Australian Test Matches (1947-48)

By India		By India	
Played	5	Drawn (2nd Test) ..	1
Won	*nil*	Lost	4

CRICKET CHAMPIONSHIP OF INDIA

Winners of Ranji Trophy

[RANJI TROPHY—*A gold cup presented by the Maharaja of Patiala in memory of the famous batsman, Prince Ranjitsinji.*]

1934-35 Bombay; 1935-36 Bombay; 1936-37 Nawanagar State; 1937-38 Hyderabad; 1938-39 Bengal; 1939-40 Maharashtra; 1940-41 Maharashtra; 1941-42 Bombay; 1942-43 Baroda; 1943-44 Western India; 1944-45 Bombay; 1945-46 Holkar; 1946-47 Baroda; 1947-48 Holkar.

Ranji Trophy Records

912 runs—Holkar *v.* Mysore for 8 wickets (1945).

826 runs—Maharashtra *v.* Western India States (1948).

798 runs—Maharashtra *v.* Northern India (1940).

784 runs—Baroda *v.* Holkar (1946).

764 runs—Bombay *v.* Holkar, 1944.

735 runs—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra (1943).

675 runs—Maharashtra *v.* Bombay (1940).

658 runs for 8 wickets—S. Punjab *v.* N. India (1945).

650 runs for 9 wickets—Maharashtra *v.* Baroda (1939).

650 runs—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra (1940).

645 runs—Bombay *v.* Baroda, 1945.

638 runs for 8 wickets—Bombay *v.* Sind (1947).

632 runs for 7 wickets—Bombay *v.* Maharashtra (1947).

620 runs—Bombay *v.* North India (1949).

618 runs—Holkar *v.* Bengal (1942).

613 runs—N. India (7 wickets) *v.* N.-W.F.P. (1941).

World record for any wicket—By Gul Mahomed and Hazare (4th wicket partnership)—577 runs *v.* Holkar (1941), (*highest score for any wicket*).

Highest individual centuries in one innings—Six centuries by Holkar *v.* Mysore (1945-46)—(*a world record*).

Highest aggregate in one innings—1,325 runs by Maharashtra *vs.* Bombay at Poona (1941-42).

Lowest Victory—By one run, Bengal *vs.* Bihar (1941-42).

Smallest Totals—22 runs, S. Punjab *v.* N. India (1934).

Highest Individual Scores in Ranji Trophy

*443—B. B. Nimbalkar (Maharashtra) against Western India States (1948-49).

*359—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Maharashtra (1943-44).

319—Gul Mahomed (Baroda) against Holkar (1946-47).

*316—V. S. Hazare (Maharashtra) against Baroda (1939-40).

288—Hazare (Baroda) against Holkar (1946-47).

278—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Holkar (1944-45).

246—D. B. Deodhar (Maharashtra) against Bombay (1940-41).

217—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against W. India (1944).

217—U. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Hyderabad (1947).

245—R. S. Modi (Bom.) against Baroda (1944-45).

*245—R. S. Modi (Bom.) against

233—S. Mustaq Ali (Holkar) against U.P.

*234—V. M. Merchant (Bombay) against Sind (1945-46).

*230—K. C. Ibrahim (Bom.) against N. W. India (1941-42).

*222—Capt. Wazir Ali (S. Punjab) against Bengal (1938-39).

*218—S. W. Sohoni (Maharashtra) against W. I. States (1940-41

*209—Ram Prakash (N. India) against Maharashtra (1940-41)

203—J. Naomal (Sind) against Nawanagar (1938-39).

202—Rangnekar (Bombay) against Maharashtra (1940-41).

200—C. K. Naidu (Holkar) against Baroda (1945-46).

Rohinton Baria Inter-University Cricket

[*Gold cup presented by Mr. A. D. Baria of Bombay to perpetuate the memory of his son, Rohinton Baria who died at an early age.*]

1935-36 Punjab University; 1936-37 Punjab University; 1937-38 Punjab University (walk-over); 1938-39 Bombay University; 1939-40 Bombay University; 1940-41 Bombay University; 1941-42 Bombay University; 1942-43 Bombay University; 1943-44 Punjab University; 1944-45 Bombay University; 1945-46 Bombay University; 1946-47 Bombay University; 1947-48 Bombay University; 1948-49 Bombay University.

FOOTBALL

I. F. A. Shield

1930 Seaforth Highlanders; 1931 H. L. I.; 1932 2nd Bn. Essex Regt.; 1933 D. C. L. I.; 1934 *Game abandoned;* 1935 East Yorks; 1936 Mahomedan Sp.; 1937 6th Field Brigade; 1938 East Yorks; 1939 Police A.C.; 1940 Aryans; 1941-42 Mahomedan Sp.; 1943 East Bengal; 1944 B. & A. Rly.; 1945 East Bengal; 1946 *Tournament abandoned;* 1947 Mohan Bagan; 1948 Mohan Bagan.

Rovers Cup, Bombay

1930 K. O. S. B.; 1931 Royal W. Kents; 1932 Royal Irish Fusiliers; 1933 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1934 Sherwood Foresters; 1935-36 King's Liverpool Regt.; 1937-38 Bangalore Muslims; 1939 28th Field Brigade; 1940 Mahomedan Sporting, Calcutta; 1941 Welch Regiment; 1942 Bata Sp. Club (Calcutta); 1943 R. A. F.; 1944 British Base Reinforcement Camp; 1945 Military Police; 1946 B. B. R. Camp; 1947 *No Play;* 1948 Bangalore Muslims.

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* Indicates not out.

National Football Championship

(Santosh Memorial Trophy)

1941	Bengal.	1945	Bengal.
1942-43	No Play.	1946	Mysore.
1944	Delhi.	1947	Bengal.

Inter-University Football Championship

1941	Calcutta.	1946	Madras.
1942	Punjab.	1947	Madras.
1943	Punjab.	1948	Madras.
1944	Punjab		

HOCKEY

Beighton Cup

1930-32 Cal. Customs; 1933 Jhansi Heroes; 1934 Cal. Rangers; 1935 Cal. Customs; 1936 Bombay Customs; 1937 B. N. Ry. (Kharagpur); 1938 Cal. Customs; 1939 B. N. Ry.; 1940 Bhopal Wanderers; 1941 Bhagwant Club, Tricumgarh and Bhopal Wanderers drew; 1942 Cal. Rangers; 1943-45 B. N. Ry. *(Kharagpur)*; 1946 Port Commissioners (Cal.); 1947 No game; 1948 United Provinces & Port Commissioners Clubs.

Aga Khan Cup

1934 Bombay Customs; 1935 Bombay Customs; 1936 Bombay Customs; 1937 Lahore Y. M. C. A.; 1938 Bhagwant Club (Tricumgarh); 1939 Bhopal Wanderers; 1940 B. B. C. I. Ry.; 1941 Bhagwant Club (Tricumgarh); 1942 No play; 1943 G. I. P. Ry.; 1944 Kamla Club (Cawnpore); 1945 Kamla Club (Cawnpore); 1946 Kalyanmal Mills (Indore); 1947 Rawalpindi Spartans.

National Hockey Championship

1948—Bhopal.

BILLIARD CHAMPIONS

1941—V. R. Freer (Madura).
1942—V. R. Freer (Madura).
1943-45—*No game.*
1946—C. Hirajee (Calcutta)
1947—C. Hirajee (Calcutta).
1948—V. R. Freer (Madura).

WOMEN'S RECORDS IN INDIA

100 metres run	B. Edward (Bengal)	12·8 s.
Running High Jump	Miss U. Lyons (Punjab)	4 ft. 11¾ in.
Shot put	M. Yates (All., 1941)	31 ft. 10½ in.
Discuss Throw	Miss Gilbert (Bom., 1942)	92 ft. 6 in.
Javelin Throw	N. Duke (Punjab)	91 ft. 8. in.
Broad Jump	Miss Gilbert (Bom.)	15 ft. 5½ in.
Putting the Shot	Miss Gilbert (Bom.)	29 ft. 11 in.
100 metres Breast Stroke	D. Nazir	1m. 39·1 s. (1947)
100 metres Free Style	Miss P. Ballantyne (Bom.)	18·6 s. (1947).
200 metres Free Style	Miss P. Ballantyne (Bom.)	
100 metres Back Stroke	J. Macclumph (Bom.)	1 m. 39 s. (1947).

SOME ALL-INDIA SPORTS RECORDS

Six miles Run	Raunak Singh (Patiala)	31 m. 33·5 s.
Hop-Step and Jump	L. T. Bossey (Mad.)	49 ft. 4½ in.
Pole Vault	A. Shafi Khan (Punj.) '36	12 ft. ⅞ in.
Hammer Throw	Som Nath (Patiala)	153 ft. 8 in.
High Jump	Gurnam Singh (Pat.) '44	6 ft. 2⅛ in.
Discuss Throw	R. Armstrong (U.P.)	130 ft. 10¼ in.
Javelin Throw	E. Whiter (Punjab)	182 ft. 2⅜ in.
Shot-put (best hard)	Zahur Ahmad (Punjab)	45 ft. 2 in.
One mile Run	R. Judge (U.P.)	4 m. 31·2 s.
3 miles Run	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	15 m. 3·7 s.
100 yds. Run	R. Vernieux (Bengal)	9·7 s.
220 yds. Run	M. Sutton (Bengal)	22·2 s.
440 yds. Run	G. C. Bhalla (Punj.) 1934	50 s.
5 miles Run	Gujar Singh (Punjab)	27 m. 10 s.
6 miles Run	Raunak Sing (Patiala)	31 m. 35·5 s.
100 metres Run	J. Hart (Punjab)	10·6 s.
400 ,, ,,	R. Thingalaya (Bom.) '49	49·8 s.
800 ,, ,,	Hazoora Singh (Pat.)	1 m. 56·8 s.
1,500 ,, ,,	Chand Singh (Pat.)	4 m. 4·2 s.
3,000 ,, ,,	Chand Singh (Pat.) '44	8 m. 49·5 s.
5,000 ,, ,,	Raunak Singh (Patiala)	15 m. 23 s.
10,000 ,, ,,	Raunak Singh (Patiala)	32 m. 2·6 s.
15,000 ,, ,,	Swami (Bombay)	58 m. 16·4 s.
20,000 metres Run	Swami (Bombay)	1 h. 16 m. 0 s.
25,000 ,, ,,	Swami (Bombay)	
30,000 ,, ,,	R. G. Michael (Bom.)	2 hrs. 13 m. 50 s.
All-India Weight-Lifting champion	Md. Naqi (Punjab)	727½ lbs.
120 yds. Hurdles	Mr. Sutton (Bengal) '34	15·2 s.
440 yds. Hurdles	A. Hamid (Punjab)	58·0 s.
400 metre Hurdles	M. Kaunds (Bom.) 1949	56 s.
Non-stop Swinging	Ali Hussain Shikari	123 ft. 9½ in.
Discuss Throw	S. Gregory (U.S. Army, India)	2 hrs. 43 m. 43·8
Marathon	Chota Singh (Patiala)	26 m. 30·6 s.
500 metres walk	A. K. Dutt (Bengal) '42	58 m. 49·8 s.
10,000 m. walk	C. B. Michael (Bom.)	42·2 s.
400 metres Relay	Tata Sports (Bom.) 1949	26·2 s.
1600 metres Relay	Rangers Sports Club 1949	3 m. 25 s.

Indian Swimming Records

One mile swimming	A. Das (Bengal)	24 m. 7-1/5 s.
100 metres Free Style	Sachin Nag (Beng.) '44	1 m. 4·2 s.
1,500 metres Free Style	D. Das (Bengal)	21 m. $56^{6}/_{10}$ s.
Non-stop Swimming	R. Chatterjee (All.)	88 hrs. 12 mins.
100 yds. Free Style	R. Garbrielson	55-4·5 s.
Swimming with hands and feet tied	R. Chatterjee (All.)	60 hrs. 52 m.
220 yds. Swimming	A. Trounce (R.A.F.)	3 m. 35-3·5 s.

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200 m. Breast Stroke	P. Mallik (Ben.) 1947	3 m. 5·5 s.
100 m. Back Stroke	R. Sawoo	1 m. 16-3/5 s.
100 m. Breast Stroke	P. Mallik (Ben.) 1947	1 m. 23·6 s.

CRICKET

Summary of Test Matches (England vs. Australia)

First played in 1876-77; Total matches played 153.

England have won 55 matches and Australia 64 matches and 34 matches have been drawn.

Anglo-Australian Test Match Records

Highest Australian innings: 729 for 6 declared, Lords, 1930.
Highest English innings: 903 for 7 declared, Oval, 1938.
Lowest Australian innings: 36, Edgbaston, 1902.
Lowest English innings: 45, Sydney, 1886-87.
Highest scorer (for Australia): D. G. Bradman, 334, Leeds, 1930.
Highest scorer (for England): Hutton, 364 at Oval, 1938.
Highest Partnership (England): Hobbs & Rhodes, 323, Melbourne, 1911-12.
Highest aggregate: 601 for 29 wickets, Lord, 1930.
Lowest aggregate: 291 for 40 wickets, Lords, 1888.
Four centuries in one innings: Barnet 126, Hutton 100, Compton 102, and Paynter 216, not out (for England in 1938).
Longest Test match: South Africa *v.* M. C. C. (1939) for 10 days.

Record Individual Scores—First-Class Matches

*452	Bradman	1930	344	Grace	1876
437	Ponsford	1928	*343	Perrin	1904
429	Ponsford	1923	341	Hirst	1905
345	Mccartney	1895	340	Bradman	1929
369	Bradman	1935-36	338	Read	1888
383	Gregory	1906	338	Blunt	1932
368	Hutton	1938	*336	Hammond	1933
*365	Hill	1900	336	Ponsford	1928
364	Hutton	1938	334	Bradman	1930
*357	Abel	1899	333	Duleepsinghji	1930
352	Ponsford	1927	325	Sandham	1930
345	Mecartney	1921	321	Murdock	1882
*344	Headley	1932			

*Not out.

World Cricket Records

Highest total (1st class)—1,107 Victoria *v.* New South Wales, 1926.

Highest Individual Score—452, not out D. G. Bradman, 1929-30.

First Wicket Partnership—555 Holmes and Sutcliffe, Yorkshire *vs.* Essex, 1932.

Second Wicket Partnership—455 runs by B. B. Nimbalkar and K. V. Bhandarkar, Maharashtra *v.* Western India States 1948-49.

Third Wicket Partnership—473 by Ponsford (281 not out) and McCabe (192) against M. C. C., 1934.

Fourth Wicket Partnership—577 runs, V. S. Hazare (288) and Gul Mahomed (319), Baroda vs. Holkar, 1946-47

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Highest Individual Test Score—364 by Hutton, England *v.* Australia, Oval, 1938.

Aggregate—J. B. Hobbs—61,221; W. G. Grace—54,896.

Highest Aggregate—Fifth Test, Durban, 1939. South Africa 530 and 481; England 316 and 654 for 5 wickets—1,981 in all.

Highest Centuries in one innings—Six individual centuries by Holkar against Mysore in Ranji Trophy, 1945-46.

WORLD'S TRACK & FIELD RECORDS

Running

100 metres	J. Owens (U.S.A.)	9·4 s. (1930)
	F. Wykoff (U.S.A.)	9·4 s. (1935)
220 yards	J. Owens (U.S.A.)	20·3 s. (1935)
One mile	G. Haegg (Sweden)	4 m. 1·4 s. (1945)
Two miles	G. Haegg (Sweden)	8 m. 42·8 s. (1945)
Five miles	P. Nurmi (Finland)	24 m. 6·2 s. (1924)
Ten miles	V. Heino (Finland)	49 m. 22·21 s. (1946)
15 miles	Mikko Hietanen (Finland)	1 h. 17 m. 28·6 s. (1948)
26 m. 385 yds.	K. Son (Japan)	2 h. 29 m. 19·2 s. (1936)
100 metres	H. Davis (U.S.A.) J. Owens (U.S.A.)	10·2 s. (1936 & 41)
200 metres	J. Owens (U.S.A.)	20·35 (1935)
400 metres	H. McKenlay (U.S.A.)	45·9 s. (1948)
800 metres	R. Harbig (Germany)	1 m. 46·6 s. (1939)
1,000 metres	R. Harbig (Germany)	2 m. 21·5 s. (1930)
1,500 metres	L. Strand (Sweden)	3 m. 43 s. (1947)
2,000 metres	G. Reiff (Belgium)	5 m. 7 s. (1948)
3,000 metres	G. Haegg (Sweden)	8 m. 1·2 s. (1942)
5,000 metres	G. Haegg (Sweden)	13 m. 58·2 s. (1942)
10,000 metres	V. Heino (Finland)	29 m. 35·4 s. (1944)
20,000 metres	A. Csaplar (Hungary)	1 h. 3 m. 1·2 s. (1941)
25,000 metres	M. Hietanen (Finland)	1 h. 40 m. 49·8 (1947)
30,000 metres	M. Hietanen (Finland)	1 h. 20 m. 17 s. (1948)

Walking

1 mile	P. Bernhardt (Latvia)	21 m. 1/5 s. (1936)
5 miles	A.H.G. Pope (Great Br.)	35 m. 47·2 s. (1932)
10 miles	Mikaelsson (Sweden)	1 h. 10 m. 55·8 s. (1945)
20 miles	H. Olsson (Sweden)	2 h. 41 m. 7 s. (1943)
10,000 metres	V. Hardmo (Sweden)	42 m. 39·6 s. (1945)
30,000 metres	H. Olsson (Sweden)	2 h. 28 m. 57/4 s. (1943)

Hurdles

120 yds. (3 ft. 6 in.)	F. Towns (U.S.A.)	13·7 s. (1936)
440 yds. (3 ft. hdls.)	R. Cochrane (U.S.A.)	52·2 s. (1942)

Jumping

Long Jump	J. Owens (U.S.A.)	26 ft. 8¼ in. (1935)
High Jump	L. Steers (U.S.A.)	6 ft. 11 in. (1941)
Hop Step & Jump	N. Tajima (Japan)	52 ft. 5⅝ in. (1936)
Pole Vault	C. Warmerdam (U.S.A.)	15 ft. 7¾ in. (1942)

Throwing

Discuss ..	A. Consolini (Italy)	55·33 metres (about 181 ft. 6¼ ins. (1948)
Javelin ..	Y. Nikkanen (Finld.)	258 ft. 2½ in. (1938)
Hammer Throw ..	E. Blask (Germany)	193 ft. 6⅞ in. (1938)

Decathlon

7,900 points ..	G. Morris (U.S.A.)	1936.

WORLD'S SWIMMING RECORDS (Men)

Free Style—		
100 metres	Alan Ford (U.S.A., 1944) ..	49·7 s.
100 meres	Alex Jany (France, 1947) ..	55·8 s.
200 metres	Alex Jany (France, 1947) ..	2 m. 5·4 s.
1 mile	K. Nakama (U.S.A., 1942)	20 m. 29 s.
Breast Stroke—		
100 yds.	R. R. Hough (U.S.A. 1939)	1 m. 00·6 s.
100 metres	R. R. Hough (U.S.A. 1939)	1 m. 07·35 s.
200 yds.	Joseph Verden (U.S.A., 1948)	1 m. 04·8 s.
400 metres	Bob Bonte (Holland, 1948)	5 m. 40·2 s.
500 metres	Do. do. Do.	7 m. 10·6 s.
Back Stroke—		
100 yds.	A. Kiefer (U.S.A., 1944) ..	56·8 s.

WOMAN'S WORLD TRACK, FIELD & SWIMMING RECORDS

100 yds. run ..	F. B. Koen (Holland) ..	10·8 secs. (1944)
100 metres run ..	H. Stephens (U.S.A.) ..	11·5 s. (1936)
Long Jump ..	F. B. Koen (Holland) ..	20 ft. 6 in. (1945)
High Jump ..	F. B. Koen (Holland) ..	5 ft. 7¼ in. (1945)
Discus Throw ..	Gisela Mauerimayer (Ger.)	48·31 mtrs. (1936)
Javelin Throw ..	A. Sleinheuer ..	47·24 mtrs. (1942)
Swimming (free style) 100 yds. ..	F. Nathanson (Denmark) 1944 ..	59·4 s.
Swimming (free style) 100 metres ..	W. Denouden (Hold.) 1936	1 m. 4·6 s.
Swimming (breast stroke) 200 metres	M. Lenk (Brazil) 1939	2 m. 56 s.
500 metres (*breast stroke*) ..	Waelberg (Hold.) 1940	7 m. 49·9 s.
100 *yds. breast stroke*	A. Siyl (Holland) 1940	1 m. 13 s.

DAVIS CUP

1932 France
1933 Britain
1934 Britain
1935 Britain
1936 Britain
1937 U. S.
1938 U. S.
1939 Australia
1946 U. S.
1947 U. S.
1948 U. S.

MILE RUNNERS

1874 W. Slade (Eng.)	4 m. 24·5 s.	1931 J. Ladoumegue (France) ..	4 m. 9·2 s.
1882 W. George (Eng.)	4 m. 21·4 s.	1933 J. Lovelock (U.S.)	4 m. 7·6 s.
1923 P. Nurmi (Swed.)	4 m. 10·4 s.		

1934 J. Cunningham U.S.) .. 4 m. 6·8 s.
1937 Wooderson (Eng.) .. 4 m. 6·4 s.
1942 G. Haegg Swed.) 4 m. 6·2 s.
1942 G. Haegg Swed.) 4 m. 4·6 s.
1943 Anderson (Swed.) 4 m. 2·6 s.
1943 Anderson (Swed.) 4 m. 1·6 s.
1945 G. Haegg (Swed.) 4 m. 1·4 s.

WORLD CHESS CHAMPIONS

Wilhelm Steinitz
Dr. Laskar
Senor Capablanca
Dr. Euwe (Holland)
Dr. Alekhine
Botvinnik (U.S.S.R.) 1948

FIGURE SKATING

Men (World Champion) 1948—R. Button (U.S.A.)

Women (World Champion) 1948—Miss Scott (Canada)

BOXING CHAMPIONS

Heavy Weight (175 lbs.) Joe Lewis (U.S.)
Light-Heavy Weight (175 lbs)—Freddie Mills (Britain)
Middle Weight (160 lbs.)—Marcel Cerdan (France).
Welter Weight (147 lbs.)—Ray Robinson (U.S.)
Light Weight (135 lbs.)—Ike Williams (U.S.)
Feather Weight (126 lbs.)—Sandy Saddler (U.S.)
Bantam Weight (118 lbs.)—Manuel Ortiz.
Fly Weight (112 lbs.)—Rinty Monaghan (N. Ireland)

MODERN HEAVY-WEIGHT CHAMPIONS

John L. Sullivan (1882-92)
James J. Corbett (1892-97)
Robert Fitzsimons (1897-99)
James J. Jeffries (1899-1906)
Tommy Burns (1906-08)
Jack Johnson (1908-15)
Jess Willard (1915-18)
Jack Dempsy (1919-26)
Gene Tunnay (1926-28)
Max Schmeling (1930-31)
Jack Sharkey (1932)
Primo Carnera (1933)
Max Baer (1934)
James J. Braddock (1935-36)
Joe Louis (1937)

SWAYTHLING CUP

(World Table Tennis)

1926-27—1930-31	Hungary
1931-32 ..	Czechoslovakia
1932-33—1934-35	Hungary
1936-37 ..	U.S.A.
1937-38 ..	Hungary
1938-39 ..	Czechoslovakia
1939-46 ..	*No competition*
1946-47 ..	Czechoslovakia
1947-48 ..	do.
1948-49 ..	Hungary

Single World Championship

1932-36—1935-36	G. V. Barna (*Hungary*)
1936-37 ..	S. Kolar (*Zech.*)
1937-38 ..	R. Bergmann (*Aus.*)
1938-39 ..	B. Vana
1939-40 ..	R. Bergmann
1940-46 ..	*No competition.*
1946-47 ..	B. Vana
1948-49 ..	Johnny Leach (*Eng.*)

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OLYMPIC CHAMPIONS, 1948

Athletics

100 Metres.—H. Dillard (U.S.), 10·3 sec.

200 Metres.—M. E. Patton (U.S.), 21·1 sec.

400 Metres.—A. S. Wint (Jamaica), 46·2 secs.

800 Metres.—M. G. Whitfield (U.S.), 1 min. 49·2 sec. (new Olympic record).

1,500 Metres.—H. Eriksson (Sweden), 3 min. 49·8 sec.

5,000 Metres.—G. Reiff (Belgium), 14 min. 17·6 sec. (new Olympic record).

10,000 *Metres.*—E. Zatopek (Czechoslavakia), 29 min. 59·6 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Relay—4×100.—U.S. (H. N. Ewell, L. C. Wright, H. Dillard, M. E. Pattoon), 40·6 sec.

400 Metres Relay—4×400.—U.S. (A. H. Harmden, C. F. Bourland, R. B. Cochran, M. G. Whitfield), 3 min. 10·4 sec.

10,000 *Metres Walk.*—J. F. Mikaelsson (Sweden), 45 min. 13·2 sec. (new Olympic record).

50,000 *Metres Road Walk.*—J. A. Ljunggren (Sweden), 4 hours 41 min. 52 secs.

Marathon.—D. Cabrera (Argentina), 2 hrs. 34 min. 51·6 sec.

110 Metres Hurdles.—W. F. Porter (U.S.), 13·9 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Hurdles.—R. B. Cochran (U.S.), 51·1 sec. (new Olympic record).

3,000 Metres Steeplechase.—T. Sjoestrand (Sweden), 9 min. 4·6 sec.

High Jump.—J. L. Winter (Australia), 1·98 (6 ft. 6 in).

Long Jump.—W. S. Steele (U.S.), 7·825 m. (25 ft. 8 in.).

Pole Vault.—O. G. Smith (U.S.), 4·30 m. (14 ft. 1¼ in.).

Hop, Step, and Jump.—A. Ahman (Sweden), 15·40 m. (50 ft. 6¼ in.).

Putting the Shot.—W. M. Thompson (U.S.), 17·12 m. (56 ft. 2 in.) (new Olympic record).

Throwing the Discus.—A. Consolini (Italy), 52·78 m. (173 ft. 2 in.) (new Olympic record).

Throwing the Javelin.—K. T. Rautavaara (Finland), 69·77 m. (228 ft. 10½ in.).

Throwing the Hammer.—I. Nemeth (Hungary), 56·07 m. (183 ft. 11½ in.).

Decathlon.—R. B. Mathias (U.S.), 7139 points.

100 Metres (Women).—F. E. Blankers-Koen (Holland), 11·9 sec.

200 Metres (Women).—F. E. Blankers-Koen (Holland), 24·4 sec.

80 Metres Hurdles (Women).—F. E. Blankers-Koen (Holland), 11·2 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Relay (Women)—*4×100.*—Holland (X. Stad-de Jong, J. J. M. Witziers-Timmer, G. J. M. van der Kade, F. E. Blankers-Koen), 47·5 sec.

High Jump (Women).—A. Coachman (U.S.), 1·68 m. (5 ft. 6⅛ in.), (new Olympic record).

Long Jump (Women).—V. O. Gyarmati (Hungary), 5·695 m. (18 ft. 8¼ in.).

Putting the Shot (Women).—M. O. M. Ostermeyer (France), 13·75 m. (45 ft. 1½ in.).

Throwing the Javelin (Women).—H. Bauma (Austria), 45·57 m. (149 ft. 6 in.) (new Olympic record).

Throwing the Discus (Women).—M. O. M. Ostermeyer (France), 41·92 m. (137 ft. 6½ in.).

Modern Pentathlon.—Captain W. O. G. Grut (Sweden).

Swimming

100 Metres Freestyle.—W. Ris (U.S.) 57·3 sec. (New Olympic Record).

100 Metres Back-stroke. — A. Stack (U.S.), 1 min. 6·4 sec.

200 Metres Breast-stroke.—J. Verdeur (U.S.), 2 min. 39·3 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Free-style.—W. Smith (U.S.), 4 min. 41 sec. (new Olympic record).

1500 Metres Free-style.—J. P. McLane (U.S.), 19 min. 18·5 sec.

800 Metres Relay—4×200.—U.S. (W. Ris, W. Wolf, J. McLane, W. Smith), 8 min. 46 sec. (new Olympic record).

High Diving.—S. Lee (U.S.).

Springboard Diving.—B. I. F. Harlan (U.S.).

100 Metres Free-style (Women).—G. Andersen (Denmark), 1 min. 6·3 sec.

100 Metres Back-stroke (Women).—K. M. Harup (Denmark), 1 min. 14·4 sec. (new Olympic record).

200 Metres Breast-stroke (Women).—P. Van Vliet (Holland), 2 min. 57·2 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Free-style (Women).—A. Curtis, 5 min. 17·8 sec. (new Olympic record).

400 Metres Relay (Women)—4×100.—U.S. (M. L. Corridon, B. M. Helser, T. M. Kalana, A. E. Curtis), 4 min. 29·2 sec. (new Olympic record).

High Diving (Women)—V. M. Draves (U.S.).

Springboard Diving (Women).—V. M. Draves (U.S.).

Water Polo.—Italy (champions)

Cycling

1000 Metres Scratch.—M. Ghella (Italy).

1000 Metres Time Trial.—J. Dupont (France); 1 min. 13·5 sec.

2000 Metres Tandem.—Italy.

4000 Metres Team Pursuit.—France (P. Adam, S. Blusson, C. Coste, F. Decanali), 4 min 57·8 sec.

Road Race, 120 miles 914 yards.—J. Beyaert (France), 5 hrs. 18 min. 12·6 sec.

Fencing

Men's Foils—Teams.—France.

Individual Foils—Ladies.—I. Elek (Hungary).

Men's Individual Foils.—J. Buhan (France).

Epee—Teams.—France.

Epee—Individual.— L. Cantone (Italy).

Sabre—Teams.—Hungary.

Sabre—Individual.—A. Gerevich (Hungary).

Weight-lifting

Bantamweight — J. N. Pietro (U.S.). (Press 231¼ lb., Snatch 198¾ lb., Jerk 248 lb.), Total, 678 lb. *Featherweight* — M. Fayad (Egypt) (203¾ lb., 231¼ lb., 297½ lb.), Total, 732½ lb. *Lightweight* —I. Shams (Egypt) (214¾ lb., 253½ lb., 325 lb.), Total, 793¼ lb. *Middleweight*—F. Spellman (U.S.) (259 lb., 264½ lb., 336 lb.), Total, 859½ lb. *Light-heavyweight* — S. A. Stanczyk (U.S.) (286½ lb., 286½ lb., 347 lb.), Total, 920 lb. *Heavyweight*—J. Davis (U.S.) (303 lb., 303 lb., 391¼ lb.), Total, 997¼ lb.

Basket Ball

U.S. (Champions); France (Runners-up).

Hockey

India (Champions); Great Britain (Runners-up).

Association Football

Sweden (Champions); Yugoslavia (Runners-up).

SOME NOTABLE RECORDS

World's Motor-boat Record—Sir Malcolm Campbell (England)—141·74 m.p.h. on 19th August, 1939.

World Air Speed Record—650·6 m.p.h. by Major Marion Carl (U.S.A.), Aug. 25, 1947.

Motor Cycle Record, One mile—Earnest Henne (Hungary) with 171·674 m.p.h.; *One hour*—Taruffa (Italy)—127·537 m.p.h.

Under Sea Record—In 1934 Prof. Bebe and Mr. Otis Barton descended into ocean to a depth of 3,028 ft. in his Bathysphere near Bermuda Island.

Speed Skating 500 metres—H. Engnestangen (Norway), 44·8 s.; 1500 metres, B. Wasenius, (Fin.), 2 m. 3·7 s.; 500 metres C. Mathiesen (Norway) 9 m. 31 s.

Motor Speed Record—Large Car: *One mile*—John Cobb (England) 394·196 m.p.h. (1947); *24 hours*—Eyston (England), 3578·3 miles; *Small car*: Kohlrausch—140·7 miles m.p.h.

AVIATION RECORDS

Aeroplanes

First Aeroplane Flight—World's first controlled flight in power-driven aeroplane by Orville Wright, 284 yds. on December 17, 1903.

Greatest Speed—Major Marion Carl (U.S.A.)—650·6 m.p.h. on Aug. 25, 1947.

Altitude—Anderson and Stevens (U.S.A.)—72,395·795 ft., November, 1938.

Non-Stop Distance Flight—By Lockheed Neptune plane, *'Truculent Turtle'* which flew a distance of 11,347 miles in Sept. 1946 from Perth, West Australia to Ohio, America in 55 hrs. 18 minutes.

Altitude—72,394·795 feet, Anderson and Stevens (U.S.A.)—No. 11, 1935.

First Polar Flight—By Byard (May 8-9, 1926).

Aeroplane Around The World—Mr. Milton Reynolds flew 20,000 miles round the world in 78 hrs. 55 minutes in April 1947.

Distance—11,323 miles in two days 23 hrs. by Scott and Black (England), England to Australia, October 20-23, 1934.

Flight Endurance Record—Established in 1939 in California by Captain W. Carroll by keeping in the air for 726 hours.

First Non-stop Trans-Atlantic Flight—By Captain Alcock and Lt. Brown (June 15-16, 1919) in 16 hrs. 12 min.

First Solo Trans-Atlantic Flight—By Lindburgh (May 20-21, 1927) in 36 hrs. 39 m.

Seaplanes

Distance Air Line—Capt. Bennet and F. O. Harvey (Great Britain) 6-8 October, 1938; Dundee to Port Nolloth (South Africa)—5,997·462 miles (9652·001 kilometres).

Distance Over Closed Circuit—M. Stoppani and C. Tonini: Italy, 27-28 May, 1937,—3,231·123 miles (5,200 kilometres).

Greatest Speed—Francesco Agello, Italy, 23rd October, 1934—440·681 miles per hour.

Solo Flight Round The World—Capt. Odom (America) set world record of solo flight round the World in 73 hrs. 6 mins. (19,645 miles) in 1947 breaking Wiley Post's record of 186 hrs. 50 mins. in 1933.

Balloons

Balloons: Duration—H. Kaulen, 13-17th December, 1913—87 hrs.
Distance—Berliner, Germany, February 8, 9, 10, 1914—1,896·856 miles.

Air Ship

Long Distance—Germany to Tokio, 15-19th August, 1929, Graf Zeppelin—7,500 miles.

Gliders

Duration—Eric Nessler (France) in June, 18-20, 1942—38 hrs. 21 m. 24 s.
Distance Air Line—O. Klepikova (U.S.S.R.)—July 6, 1939—465·532 miles.
Altitude—E. Ziller (Germany) on Nov. 21, 1938—22,434·338 ft.

Parachute

Descent—Rene Michenaud (1932, France) jumped from an aeroplane at an altitude of 25,590 ft. in France.

Women's Flight Records

Non-Stop Flight—Mrs. Dupeyron (France) who made a non-stop flight of 2,447·728 miles from Ovan to Iraq on May 15, 16, 1938.

Distance Air Line—V. Grisodoubova and P. Ossipenko, U.S.S.R., September 24-25, 1938—3,671·432 miles.

Altitude—World record—Mille Hilz (France)—46,948·725 ft. on June 23, 1936.

Speed—Margaret Hurlburt, 337·629 m.p.h. in 1947.

First Woman Trans-Atlantic Solo Flight—Mrs. Amelia Earhart, Putnam (U.S.A.), approximately in 13 hrs. 30 mins., on May 20-21, 1932.

INDIAN POSTS & TELEGRAPHS

Early History—The postal system in India is, perhaps as ancient as her temples. For, like all postal systems, it was born of the necessity of maintaining communication, so that the emperor might keep in touch with the officers in charge of provinces at a distance from the capital; and himself, be kept informed of what was taking place.

Ibn Batuta, travelling in India, in the time of Mohamed Bin Tughlak, in the middle of the fourteenth century says:—

"There are in Hindustan, two kinds of couriers, horse and foot; these are generally termed "El Wolak", the horse-courier which is generally a part of the Sultan's cavalry, is stationed at a distance of every four miles. As to the foot-couriers there will be one at a distance of every mile occupying stations which they call "El Davah" and making on the whole three miles; so that there is, at the distance of every three miles, an inhabited village, and without this, three sentry boxes where the couriers sit prepared for motion with their loins girded. In the hands of each is a whip about two cubits long, and upon the head of this are small bells. Whenever, therefore, one of the couriers leaves any city he takes his despatches in one hand and the whip, which he keeps constantly shaking, in the other. In this manner he proceeds to the nearest foot-courier and, as he approaches, shakes his whip. Upon this, outcomes another who takes the despatches and so proceeds to the next. For this reason it is that the Sultan receives his despatches in so short a time."

In later period, Sher Shah introduced mounted post in India. Emperor Akbar built Post houses at stages of ten miles on the principal trunk roads, but the system was disorganised with the fall of Mughal Empire.

A regular British Postal system was first introduced in 1766 by Lord Clive but this was used mainly for official purposes. During the administration of Warren Hastings, the posts were made available to the public for the first time and a regular organisation was set up in 1774. Lord Dalhousie created an Imperial System of Post Offices. He reduced the rates for carriage of letters and introduced postage stamps. Act 17 of 1837 is the earliest enactment establishing a public postal service in India. The Act 17 of 1854 is a landmark in the history of postal system in India, for entire department was placed under Director General and uniform rates were fixed for all India. The first issue of postage stamps was made in India in Sind in 1852. They were of three kinds--(*a*) design embossed on white paper without colour, (*b*) Blue embossed on white paper, (*c*) design embossed on vermillion wafers. The basis of authority of the existing postal system in India was Act 6 of 1898.

The earliest telegraph line established in India was constructed in 1851 by Dr. W. O'Shaughnessy, a Professor of Chemistry in the Calcutta Medical College between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour and certain other places. Long distance lines were opened for traffic in 1855 under the Telegraph Act 24 of 1854.

Postal System -The Post and Telegraph Department of the Government of India is controlled by the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs which is under the Department of Posts and Air of the Government of India. There are Deputy Director-Generals, Assistant Deputy Director-Generals.

India is divided into eight postal circles for administrative purposes, namely, West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Central, Madras, East Punjab, United Provinces and Assam. Each of the First Seven is in charge of a Postmaster-General and Assam Circle is controlled by a Director, Posts and Telegraphs. Central circle consists of C. P., Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs.

Telegraph Department which was a separate organisation was partially amalgamated with Postal Department in 1912, but the complete amalgamation took place in 1914.

Telephones --Licenses were granted to a private company known as Oriental Telephone Co. for establishment of exchanges at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras and Rangoon. All the lines however have been taken up by the Government in 1942. The first automatic telephone was installed in India at Simla with 700 lines in 1913.

For the first time in India, *photo telegram* service between London and Bombay was opened in the last week of June, 1943. The pictures travel by wireless with the speed of light.

A state-owned automatic telephone factory was opened in India in 1948. The factory is designed to make India fully self-sufficient in regard to her requirements of automatic telephones. The site for the construction of the factory has been selected in Bangalore. This new factory, the Indian Telephone Industries will be the first national industry set up in accordance with government's industrial policy.

Airgraph Service—The *airgraph service* was started in February, 1942. The airgraph filming station and an airgraph section was opened in Calcutta on September 1, 1943.

Post-war Development—The post-war development plan for Posts and Telegraphs, involving a capital expenditure of Rs. 32·05 crores in the first 5 years, has been drawn up.

The Posts and Telegraphs development plan covers a period of 15 years, divided into three phases, each covering five years. The guiding principles in formulating the plan had been the need for an improvement in the quality of the service rendered to the public and the necessity for making all the services—postal, telephone and telegraphs—available over as large an area and for as large a part of the population as possible. Special consideration has been given to the rural areas which are expected to play an increasingly important part in post-war India with its more balanced rural and urban economy.

The proposed capital expenditure will cover a number of projects, including installations of 50 new small automatic telephone exchanges, totalling 5,000 lines; the replacement of worn-out apparatus and the expansion of the existing systems at 230 manual and automatic telephone exchanges, covering 92,000 subscribers' lines; the expansion of trunk telephone service and the expansion and replacement of 14 trunk exchanges; eighteen-channel and 40 six-channel carrier telegraph systems; the provision of 450 new urban post offices and 17,600 rural post offices, and the expansion of P. and T. Department's wireless services.

A capital outlay estimated at Rs. 18·72 lakhs on the expansion of the Madras telephone system has also been drawn up.

Inland Postal Tariff

	Rs.	A.	P.
Letters—			
Not exceeding 1 tola	0	1	6
For every additional tola	0	1	0
Books & Pattern packets—			
Upto 1st five tolas ..	0	0	9
For every addl. 2½ tolas	0	0	3
Post Cards—			
Single	0	0	9
Reply	0	1	0

Parcels—			
No exceeding 40 tolas	0	6	0
For every additional 40 tolas or part thereof	0	6	0
Registration Fee—			
For letter, postcard, etc.	0	3	0
Money Order Fee—			
Rs. 10 or fraction thereof	0	2	0
Telegraphic M.O.—			
Same as ordinary M.O. fee *plus* actual telegraphic charge as			

Ordinary and *express* plus as. 2 supplementary charge.

Inland Telegrams—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Ordinary (*8 words*)	0	13	0
Each additional word	0	1	0
Express (*8 words*) ..	1	10	0
Each additional word	0	2	0

Insurance Fee—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Not exceeding Rs. 100	0	4	0
Exceeding Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 200	0	5	6
Exceeding Rs. 200 but not exceeding Rs. 300	0	8	0
For every additional Rs. 100 over Rs. 300 upto Rs. 1,000	0	2	0

Foreign Postal Tariff

	Rs.	A.	P.
Letter—			
All countries for 1st oz.	0	3	6
And for each addl. oz.	0	2	0
Post Cards	0	2	0
Printed Papers—			
For every 2 oz. ..	0	¾	0
Business Papers—			
Not exceeding 10 oz.	0	3	6
Parcels—			
3 lbs.	1	11	0
Over 3 lbs., not over 7 lbs	3	5	0
Over 7 lbs., not over 11 lbs.	5	2	0
Over 11 lbs., not over 22 lbs.	8	5	0
Registration Fee—			
For letters, etc. ..	0	3	0

Burma

	Rs.	A.	P.
Post Cards	0	1	0
Inland Air Mail—			
Post Card	0	1	0
Letter (*Each tola*) ..	0	2	6

Postal Traffic in Br. India

	Letters (000)	*Postcards*	*Inland Tele.*	*Inland M.O.* (Rs. 000)
1040-41	529,096	365,458	15,272	79,47,93
1941-42	541,528	413,096	17,721	92,19,93
1942-43	530,974	473,500	19,269	1,12,27,08
1943-44	606,554	550,420	23,537	1,44,99,39
1944-45	675,089	603,794	25,283	1,70,57,73
1945-46	777,315	691,122	26,608	1,87,38,83

Number of Post Offices

1938-39	24,303	1942-43	25,671
1939-40	24,741	1943-44	25,841
941-42	25,536	1944-45	

Postal Landmarks

1825—First postage stamp for India issued at Karachi for use in Sind only.

1830—First overland post between England and India established when steamer 'Hugh Lindsay' made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez.

1840—P. & O. obtained character for conveyance of mails between London to Suez for *en route* to India.

1851—First Telegraph line opened between Calcutta and Diamond Harbour.

1854—First stamp (half anna) printed in Calcutta.

1865—First telegraph line opened between England and India, 27 Jan. 1865.

1870—G. P. O. Calcutta on the western side of Dalhousie Square was opened and occupies the site of the old fort.

1871—Value-payable system was established.

1880—Money-order system introduced.

1885—Postal Savings Bank started.

GSL

[illegible]1—First official Air Mail flight on 18th February when 6,500 letters and post cards were blown from Allahabad to Naini Junction.

1929—First Air-Mail from England landed at Karachi on 6th April, 1929.

1931—New Delhi Commemoration Stamp issued.

1935—Silver Jubilee of King George V Commemoration Stamp issued.

1937—King George VI Stamp first issued containing pictures showing various aspects of carrying mails in the country.

1942—Airgraph Service started (February 2, 1942).

1943—Photo Telegram Service introduced (3rd June, 1943).

1946—Two Pice Post Card reintroduced from 1st July.

1947—Indian Union issues three Jai Hind stamps commemorating Indian Independence, depicting the Asoka capital, India's National Flag and an Aircraft in flight.

1947—Government purchased from January 1, 1947, Overseas Telecommunications Service from India Radio and Cable Communication Ltd.

1948—Commemoration stamp issued on the occasion of the first flight of India's first external air service from Bombay to London.

1948—A stamp exhibition organised by the Postal Department was opened for the first time at Delhi on March 1948.

1948—Gandhi Memorial Stamps in four values issued on the 1st anniversary of India's Independence Day, 15th August, 1948.

INDIA IN COMPARISON & CONTRAST

Infant Mortality

	Under 1 year of age —per 1,000 live births
Australia	38
India Proper	163
Japan	114
U.K.	54
U.S.A.	40
Germany	60
Italy	109

Expectation of Life (Years)

	Male	*Female*
Eng. & Wales	58·74	64·40
Canada	58·96	60·73
U. S. A.	60·60	64·50
Germany	59·86	62·81
Australia	63·48	67·14
Japan	46·92	49·63
India	26·91	26·56
Italy	53·76	56·0

Death-rate

	per 1,000
India (1939)	22·2
U.S.A. (less than)	12
England	12

Birth-rate

	per 1000		*per 1000*
India	33·6		
U. S. A.	20·9	Britain	15·0
U. K.	16·0	Japan	29·9

Reproductive Record

	Increase of Population (P.C.)		*Increase of Population (P.C.)*
India (1870-1930)	30	Germany (1870-1930)	60
Europe Ex-Russia (1870-1930)	64	Russia (1870-1930)	115
		U.S.A. (1870-1930)	125

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Span of Life

	Expectation of Life	*Infant mortality (under 1 year per 1000)*		*Expectation of Life*	*Infant mortality (under 1 year per 1000)*
Australia ..	63	38	U.K. ..	60	53
U..S.A. ..	61	48	India ..	27	167
Germany ..	60	60			

India's Highest in the World

	per 1000		*per 1000*
Birth rate	35	Infant Mortality rate ..	240
Death rate	24·3	Maternal Mortality ..	50 to 100

[Masani's *Picture of a Plan*]

Per capita Annual Expenditure on Public Health

	Rs.	A.	P.
India	0	8	0
Great Britain (1934-35)	54	8	11
U.S.A. (1932) ..	51	6	10

P.C. Expenditure of Total Revenue on Public Health

	P.C.
India	4·9
U.S.A.	13
Great Britain	25

Ratio of Doctors & Nurses

U.K.—1 Doctor to 1,000 people.

U.S.A.—1 Doctor to 150 to 800 people.

India—1 Doctor to 6,300 people.

U.K.—1 Nurse to 300 people.

India—1 Nurse to 43,000 people.

U.K.—1 midwife to each 680 people.

India—1 midwife for each 60,000 people.

Milk Consumption in India

Average daily consumption *per capita* of milk and milk products (butter, ghee, etc.). From report on the Marketing of milk, 1943:

	Oz.		*Oz.*
N.W.F.P.	6·8	Madras	3·7
U.P.	7·0	Hyderabad	3·9
Sind	18·0	Mysore	4·4
Punjab	15·2	Orissa	3·4
Bihar	4·2	Bengal	2·8
Bombay	5·5	C.P.	1·8
Assam	1·3		

Average Daily Milk Consumption

	Oz.		*Oz.*
India	5·8	Great Britain	41
New Zealand	56	U. S. A.	36
Australia	45		

Average Yield per Cow

	lbs. per day		*lbs. per day*
Indian Cow ..	.. Just over 2	England ..	.. 15
Holland ..	.. 20·5	New Zealand ..	.. 14

Fish Consumption

	Per head per annum (lbs.)		*Per head per annum (lbs.)*
Japan	111	U.S.S.R.	18
Canada	109	India	5
Denmark	63	Iran	5
United Kingdom	49	Burma	5
U.S.A.	35		

Annual 'per capita' Consumption of Cotton Cloth

	Yds.		*Yds.*
India	16	Egypt	18
Argentina	38	West Indies	22
Ceylon	11	S. Africa	23

[National Planning Committee's suggestion is 30 yds. *per capita* for India.]

Average Yield per acre

	Sugarcane (Md.)		*Sugarcane (Md.)*
India	383	Peru	1,160
Java	1,446		

Average Yield per acre (in lbs.)

	Wheat	*Rice*	*Cotton*		*Wheat*	*Rice*	*Cotton*
India	636	854	89	Italy	—	2,797	—
Argentina	780	—	151	Egypt	—	1,845	531
U.S.A.	846	1,333	264	Japan	—	2,124	—
Canada	972	—	—	China	—	1,400	—

Latest Per Capita Income*

	Rs.		Rs.
Australia (1946)	1,799	U.S.A. (1947)*	4,668
Canada (1947)	2,868	†Br. India (1945-46)	198
U.K. (1947)	2,355		

India's per capita share of Foreign Trade

(*Export and Import together*)

	Rs.		*Rs.*
India	10	Germany	100
United Kingdom	370	Japan	70
U.S.A.	113		

[*B. N. Adarkar, Asst. Economic Adviser Govt. of India's broadcast on June 2, 1945.*]

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* Estimate made in the Ministry of Commerce, Government of India at the request of the United Nations Secretariat.

† If Provinces of Indian Dominion alone are considered this figure would increase to Rs. 204.

Road Mileage

	Road mileage to sq.mile	*Road mileage per 100,000 of population*		*Road mileage to sq.mile*	*Road mileage per 100,000 of population*
Great Br.	2·02	392	Italy ..	·89	247
France ..	1·84	934	India ..	0·18	76
U.S.A. ..	1·01	2,499			
Germany ..	0·95	260			

Vide Antia's Transport (Oxford)

Motor Vehicles in Relation to Population

	per inhabitants One vehicle		*per inhabitants One vehicle*
India	2017	Great Britain ..	15
U. S. A.	0·5	Italy	78
Australia	7·5		

Vide Antia's Trans (Oxford)

Coal Output

	P.C. of World's Output		*P.C. of World's Output*
India	2	United Kingdom ..	29
U.S.A.	29		

Per Capita Sugar Consumption

	Per year (*lb.*)		*Per year*
		Japan	33
France	52	Netherlands	64
Australia	116	U.S.A.	97
Germany	52	U. Kingdom	106
		India	27

Horse Power

	h. p. per thousand population		*h. p. per thousand population*
Norway ..	700	U. S. A.	100
Canada	600	India	1
Sweden	200		

Approximate mileage of Railways and Roads per 1000 sq. miles

	Railways	*Roads*		*Railways*	*Roads*
United Kingdom	225	2000	U. S. A. ..	75	1000
Japan	100	4000	British India .	75	347

Approximate manufacturing per head of Population
(*in dollars*)

	U.S.A.	*Ger.*	*Japan.*	*India.*		*U.S.A.*	*Ger.*	*Japan.*	*India.*
1896-1900	160	120	5·7	1·5	1926-1929	350	180	41	3·5
1911-1913	250	170	16	2·5	1936-1938	330	210	65	49

(Vide League of Nations publication *Industrialisation and Foreign Trade.*)

Literacy

	P.C.		*P.C.*
Japan	96	U. K.	92·5
U. S. A.	95·7	India	14·6

Agricultural Expenses by Government

	Per capita (Rs.)		*Per capita (Rs.)*
U. S. A.	80	U. K.	2
Canada	21	India	One anna

(Jairamdas Daulatram's statement in Indian Parliament, 26.3.1948.)

Dependent on Land

	per cent.		*per cent.*
India	70	U. S. A.	22
United Kingdom	8		

Per Capita National Income

	Rs.	A.	P.	*Source*
Br. India	62	3	3	Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao (1931-32).
Great Britain	1,049	6	5	Journal of Royal Statistical Society 1940, p. 517.
U. S. A.	1,371	7	3	
Japan	218	0	0	Monthly Labour Review, Vol. 53, 1941, p. 14.
Australia	792	0	0	

Density of Population

	Per sq. mile		*Per sq. mile*
All-India	246	Japan	482
India Proper	341	Germany	373
Bengal	779	France	197
England & Wales	710	U. S. A.	43

Wealth of India

According to	*Average income per head* Rs.	A.	P.	*According to*	*Average income per head* Rs.	A.	P.
D. Naoroji (1870)	20	0	0	Wadia & Joshi (1913-14)	44	0	0
Sir D. Barbour & Major E. Baring (1882)	27	0	0	Shah & Khambata (1921-22)	67	0	0
Digby (1898-99)	18	9	0	V. K. R. V. Rao (1931-32	72	3	0
Lord Curzon (1900)	30	0	0	Findlay Shirras (1921)	107	0	0
Digby (1900)	17	4	0	Findlay Shirras (1922)	116	0	0
Atkinson (1875)	25	0	0				
Atkinson (1895)	34	0	0				

Consumption of Electricity

	Total energy generated in millions K.W.H.	*K.W.H. per Capita*
Great Britain (1946)	41,240	896
U.S.A. (1946)	223,092	1,690
Canada (1947)	45,600	4,148
Sweden (1947)	14,000	2,090
India (1947)	3,357	10.5

Steel Consumption

	per Capita		per Capita
U.S.A.	860 lbs.	India	8 lbs.
U.K.	520 „	China	5 „
Australia	470 „		

INDIA'S PUBLIC DEBT

General Position.—Due to a further reduction in expenditure as well as borrowing from the market, the total rupee debt of the Central Government at the end of 1947-48 showed an actual decrease of Rs. 7·03 crores from 2,142·00 crores at the end of 1946-47 to Rs. 2,134·97 crores at the end of 1947-48, as against an increase of Rs. 205·07 crores in 1946-47 and Rs. 365·53 crores in 1945-46. The borrowings of the Government from the market during the years 1947-48 amounted to approximately Rs. 40 crores and thus fell short of the target of Rs. 150 crores envisaged in the budget for 1947-48. The target for 1948-49 is fixed at Rs. 150 crores or. more, if possible. As regards the composition of the rupee debt, there were only slight changes during the year 1947-48. The percentage proportion of the outstandings of the undated loans, Treasury bills, and postal savings to total rupee debt increased respectively from 11·9, 3·6, and 12·5 at the end of 1946-47 to 12·1, 4·6 and 13·1 at the end of 1947-48. The proportion of the dated loans and other obligations, however showed decline from 59·3 per cent and 12·7 per cent to 58·8 per cent and 11·4 per cent respectively over the same period. The sterling debt revealed a large decline during the year, the total amount outstanding excluding railway annuities declining from 36·61 crores at the end of March, 1947 to Rs. 30·28 crores at the close of March, 1948.

As regards *provincial debt position*, it was noticed that the outstanding total debt of all the provinces in the Dominion of India showed a decline of Rs. 37·91 crores from 157·79 crores at the end of 1946-47 to Rs. 119·88 crores at the end of 1947-48. This is primarily due to the fact that the figures for the former year include those of the undivided provinces of Bengal and the Punjab, whereas those of 1947-48 relate to the partitioned provinces. No provincial Government resorted to long-term borrowing during the year 1947-48, neither did any provincial loan fall due for repayment.

Indo-Pakistan Financial Agreement.—Early in Demember, 1947, the Government of India and Pakistan arrived at a financial agreement in the matter of the allocation of public debt, cash balances, pensions, military stores, Ordnance factories and other fixed assets of undivided India. Pakistan's share of the public debt is made up of the value of assets, physical or financial which lie in Pakistan or are taken over by Pakistan Government plus 17½ per cent of tho uncovered debt represented by the excess of liabilities over assets of the undivided Central Government, less the liabilities directly assumed by the Government of Pakistan. For purposes of valuation of the assets taken over by the two Dominions, it has been agreed to adopt book values in all cases except strategic railways, the book value of which is to be written down arbitrarily by about 50 per

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cent. The initial responsibility for all the liabilities of the undivided Government at the time of partition has been assumed by the Government of India, and Pakistan is to pay her share to India in Indian rupees in 50 annual equated instalments for principal and interest combined, commencing from 15th August, 1952. The rate of interest will be the same as the average yield, over a period of two years preceding the date of partition, on the rupee and sterling securities of the Government of India with an unexpired currency of 15 years or over, rounded to the nearest one-eighth of one per cent. On a very rough estimate as stated by India's Finance Minister, Pakistan's share of the debt is likely to be of the order of Rs. 300 crores and the rate of interest near about 3 per cent. The undivided Government of India's cash balances on the eve of the partition were estimated at a little under Rs. 400 crores, inclusive of the securities held in the Cash Balance Investment Account. Of these, Pakistan's share has been agreed upon at Rs. 75 crores.

As regards pensions, it has been decided that each dominion will continue to disburse the pensions now in payment in her territory, India continuing to pay the overseas pensions. The value of all pensions, both part earned and in issue, will be capitalised and the liability will be shared in the same ratio as agreed upon for sharing the uncovered debt. Pakistan's share of the military stores has been agreed upon at a third of the stocks held in India and Pakistan on the date of the partition or a third of the maintenance and reserve requirements of the two Dominions calculated on an agreed basis, whichever is less, the balance, if any, falling to India's share. In addition, Government of India will make available to the Government of Pakistan a sum of Rs. 6 crores which will, however, be added to Pakistan's debt—by way of assistance to set up Ordnance factories and a few other essential institutions, such as, Security Printing Press. No physical division will take place as regards ordnance factories of the undivided Government, the Indian Dominion taking full liability for their book value.

GOVERNMENT BALANCES AND SHORT-TERM BORROWING

Central Government Balances.—The month-end balances maintained by the undivided Government of India showed a decline from Rs. 422·85 crores in March, 1947 to 399·65 crores in April and after narrow fluctuations stood at Rs. 371·09 crores on 14th August, 1947. Mainly as a consequence of the transfer of Rs. 20 crores to provide an opening balance for the Government of Pakistan, the balances of the Government of Indian Dominion fell to Rs. 350·04 crores at the end of August and declined continuously thereafter to Rs. 262·86 crores in February, 1948, partly due to further transfer of Rs. 50 crores to the Government of Pakistan on 19th January 1948, the closing balance at the end of March, 1948, however, being Rs. 274·85 crores. The average of month-end balances of the undivided India during 4½ months ended 14th August 1947 stood lower at Rs. 391·61 crores against that of Rs. 469·01 crores of 1946-47, while the average of the balances of the Dominion of India for the 7½ months ended 31st March, 1948 stood at Rs. 324·71 crores.

Treasury Bills.—The total outstandings of Treasury bills as well as the outstandings with the public were higher for the greater part of the year 1947-48 as compared with last year. The total amount offered, the total amount tendered and the highest and lowest levels of outstanding Treasury Bills were higher in 1947-48 than in the previous year. The weekly offer of Rs. 2 crores with which the year commenced was with some exceptions maintained during the year.

The amount of the Central Government Treasury bills sold during the year 1947-48 in favour of issue department of the Reserve Bank of India was Rs. 271·33 crores as against Rs. 220·30 crores in the previous years. During the year the provinces of Bombay, Madras, Bihar, Orissa, United Provinces, Central Provinces and Berar and Sind (only up to 14th August, 1947) invested in Central Government Treasury bills for an amount of Rs. 184·82 crores. The holdings of all the provinces in the Indian Dominion amounted on 31st March, 1948 to Rs. 57·63 crores.

The total realisations in respect of Treasury Bills during the year 1947-48 aggregated Rs. 84·47 crores as against the total sales of the face value of Rs. 84·56 crores, the corresponding figures for the preceding year being Rs. 51·22 crores and Rs. 51·27 crores respectively. The annual average of the monthly yields showed a slight rise from 0·42 per cent during 1946-47 to 0·45 per cent during 1947-48.

Ways and Means Advances—Although their balances with the Reserve Bank continued to decline during the year 1947-48 there was no need for the Central Government for the fourth year in succession to have recourse to the bank for accommodation as their cash balances were still at large.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS

Balances, Ways and Means Advances—The balances of the Provincial Governments in the Dominion of India stood at Rs. 21·10 crores at the end of March, 1948, of which West Bengal, Bombay, East Punjab and the United Provinces accounted for 16·40 crores or 78 per cent. The average of the month-end balances for the seven half months ended 31st March, 1948, worked out to Rs. 16·55 crores. During the period from 1st April, 1947 to 14th August, 1947 all the provinces excepting Bombay, Assam and Sind had recourse to Ways and Means Advances during post-partition period, upto 31st March, 1948. Bombay, Madras, East Punjab, Bihar, Orissa had recourse to advances aggregating Rs. 1·48 crores at the close of the year 1947-48. There was no ways and means advance outstanding against any province.

Provincial Loans—During 1947-48, no loans were floated by any of the Provincial Governments. However 3¼ per cent United Provinces Encumbered Estates Act Bonds which have been on tap since 1940 continued to be issued this year also. No Provincial Government Loan fell due on repayment during the year excepting some portions of U. P. Encumbered Estates Act Bond.

Treasury Bills—Only one province *viz.*, Bengal resorted to the short-term market during the year, the total amount of treasury bills sold by it being Rs. 4 crores as against the combined figure of Rs. 16·50 crores of all provinces during the year 1946-47. There was no outstandings at the end of the year. The average yield on Provincial Treasury Bills was 0·50 per cent 1947-48 as compared with 0·49 per cent during 1946-47.

LONG-TERM DEBT AND OTHER BORROWINGS

Government of India Loans—Owing to unsettled political conditions, the partition of the country and the widespread communal disturbances, it was not possible for the Government to reach the original target of Rs. 150 crores for the borrowing programme anticipated in the budget for 1947-48. Only one loan was floated during 1947-48 for Rs. 40 crores which represented the total subscription to the Central Government Loans during the year as compared with Rs. 112 crores in the previous year 1946-47.

Repayment of Loans—The 3½% Loan 1947-50 fell due for repayment on 15th November, 1947. The holders were given the option of converting their holdings into the new 2¾ of loan 1962. In view of the considerable war-time growth in Public Debt, the annual appropriation for reduction or avoidance of death, which was raised from Rs. 3 crores to Rs. 5 crores in 1946-47 has been maintained at that level during 1947-48 and 1948-49.

Composition of Total Rupee and Sterling Debt—The Public Debt of India (including the unfunded debt and other obligations) registered a decrease of Rs. 13·36 crores at the end of March, 1948 with the total outstanding declining to Rs. 2,165·25 crores from Rs. 2,178·61 crores at the end of March, 1947.The sterling debt showed a decline of Rs. 6·33 crores from Rs. 36·61 crores at the end of 1946-47 to Rs. 30·28 crores at the end of 1947-48. According to the Central Government Budget Explanation for 1948-49, the total interest bearing obligations of the Government of India increased by 976 crores from Rs. 1,206 crores at the end of 1938-39 to Rs. 2,182 crores at the end of 1947-48. As against the total interest-bearing obligations of Rs. 2,182 crores at the end of 1947-48, the assets of the Government of India aggregated to Rs. 1,407 crores.

Conversion of Government Promissory Notes—The conversion of Promissory notes into stock certificates during 1947-48 amounted to Rs. 28·15 crores as compared with Rs. 35·32 crores during 1946-47. Institutional investors continued to avail themselves of the facility allowed by the Reserve Bank for holding securities in subsidiary general Ledger Accounts.

Government of India Annual Treasury Bills

(In thousands of Rs.)

Year	*Total amount sold*	*Amount outstanding*	*Year*	*Total amount sold*	*Amount outstanding*
1940-41 ..	101,32,75	68,90,25	1944-45 ..	229,27,75	86,70,50
1941-42 ..	118,60,00	136,97,75	1945-46 ..	117,90,75	83,33,00
1942-43 ..	371,92,75	264,69,50	1946-47 ..	51,27,25	77,59,00
1943-44 ..	396,18,75	110,61,25	1947-48 ..	84,56,25	98,68,25

Public Debts of India since 1914

	(A) *Rupee Debt* (*in crores of*		(B) *Sterling Debt** (*in crores of Rupees*)	
	Rs.	*p.c. increase + or decrease—*		
1914	179·77	—	265·81	—
1919	358·78	+99·5	304·08	+14·4
1924	482·52	+35·5	397·76	+30·8
1929	551·21	+14·2	472·78	+18·9

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* Converted at 1s. 4*d*. per rupee up to 1923-24 & thereafter at 1s. 6*d*

1934	693·09	+25·7	512·15	+ 8·3
1939	709·96	+ 2·4	469·10	— 8·4
1940	727·79	+ 2·6	442·49	— 5·7
1941	861·17	+18·3	344·93	—22·1
1942	941·00	+ 9·3	210·70	—38·9
†1943	1,206·18	+28·2	55·59	—73·6
†1944	1,342·69	+11·3	39·14	—29·4
†1945	1,571·42	+17·0	38·13	— 2·6
†1946	1,936·95	+23·3	37·69	— 1·2
†1947	2,142·00	+10·5	36·61	— 2·9
†1948	2,134·97	— 0·3	30·28	—17·3

Total Interest-bearing Obligations of Govt. of India

(Including unfunded debt and deposits)

	In crores of Rs.		*In crores of Rs.*
1939-40	1,203·86	1944-45	1,860·44
1940-41	1,247·67	1945-46	2,282·38
1941-42	1,209·21	1946-47	2,359·36
1942-43	1,353·13	1947-48 (Revised)	2,162·34
1943-44	1,532·47	1948-49 (Budget)	2,214·27

Post Office Cash Certificates *

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	Amount outstanding		*Amount outstanding*
1939-40	57,02	1945-46	38,76
1940-41	46,98	1946-47	39,22
1941-42	39,01	1947-48 (1st April to 14th Aug. 1947)	37,75
1942-43	34,57	(15th Aug. 1947 to 31st Mar. 1948)	— 3,05
1943-44	34,64		
1944-45	35,82		

Post Office Defence Savings Certificates †

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	outstanding Amount		*outstanding Amount*
1940-41	2,29	1945-46	5,92
1941-42	4,35	1946-47	5,18
1942-43	5,56	1947-48 (1st April to 14th Aug. 1947)	4,79
1943-44	6,97	15th Aug. to 31st March 1948)	—40
1944-45	6,42		

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* Figures from 15th August, 1947 relate to Indian Dominion; outstandings as on 31st March, 1948 do not include India's share of the earlier liabilities.

† Now replaced by the 12-year National Savings Certificates from 1st October, 1943.

Post Office National Savings Certificates *

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	outstanding Amount		outstanding Amount
1944-45	28,19	1947-48 (1st April to 14th Aug. 1947)	74,95
1944-45	28,19	15th Aug. to 31st March 1948)	9,23
1945-46	51,28		
1946-47	70,62		

Post Office Savings Bank

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	outstanding Amount		outstanding Amount
1939-40	78,32	1945-46	115,04
1940-41	59,51	1946-47	142,35
1941-42	52,07	1947-48 (1st April to 14th Aug. 1947)	1,46,14
1942-43	52,22	15th Aug. to 31st March 1948)	7,58
1943-44	64,18		
1944-45	80,22		

Post Office Defence Savings Bank Deposits

(In Lakhs of Rupees)

	outstanding Amount		outstanding Amount
1941-42	11	1946-47	10,93
1942-43	40	1947-48 (1st April to 14th Aug. 1947)	6,03
1943-44	3,98	15th Aug. to 31st March 1948)	— 3,16
1944-45	8,53		
1945-46	10,50		

INDIAN CURRENCY

Absorption of Small Coins

(In thousand of Rupees)

1939-40	2,20,98	1943-44	18,46,26
1940-41	4,28,20	1944-45	19,20,38
1941-42	5,06,27	1945-46	9,97,83
1942-43	11,63,58	1946-47	5,90,72
		†1947-48	3,98,55

Whole Rupees Coined and Issued since 1835

Calcutta	270,20,56,128	Lahore	24,54,36,532
Madras	10,76,07,305		
Bombay	460,05,01,165	Total ..	765,56,01,130

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* Includes Hyderabad State National Savings Certificates from 1944-45 to 14th August, 1947.

† Includes figures for Pakistan since 15th August, 1947.

BULLION

Spot Price of Gold & Silver in Bombay

(*Gold*: *per Fine tolas*: *Silver*: *per* 100 *tolas grow*)

		Gold Highest Rs. a. p.	Silver Highest Rs. a. p.			Gold Highest Rs. a. p.	Silver Highest Rs. a. p.
1938-39	..	37 10 6	53 1 6	1943-44	..	96 4 0	141 8 0
1939-40	..	43 8 0	66 4 0	1944-45	..	76 12 0	143 4 0
1940-41	..	48 8 0	64 13 0	1945-46	..	97 12 0	159 6 0
1941-42	..	57 12 0	97 6 0	1946-47	..	111 0 0	195 0 0
1942-43	..	72 0 0	116 8 0	1947-48	..	117 12 0	183 13 0

Production of Gold in India

(*In thousands of fine ounces*)

1939	..	..	..	317	1944	..	..	..	187
1940	..	..	..	289	1945	..	..	..	168
1941	..	..	..	286	1946	..	..	..	132
1942	..	..	..	256	1947	..	..	..	172*
1943	..	..	..	252					

Production of Silver in India

(*In millions of fine ounces*)

1939	..	..	..	0·023	1944	..	..	..	0·014
1940	..	..	..	0·023	1945	..	..	..	0·014
1941	..	..	..	0·023	1946	..	..	..	0·010
1942	..	..	..	0·020	1947	..	..	..	0·015*
1943	..	..	..	0·019					

* Provisional

Quantity and value of Imports and Exports of Gold Coin and Bullion

Imports (*Gold coin and Bullion*)

		Quantity (oz.)	*Value (Rs.)*			*Quantity (oz.)*	*Value (Rs.)*
1939-40	..	70,923	72,24,199	1943-44	..	18,911	35,84,992
1940-41	..	5,495	6,23,588	1944-45	..	7,949	15,82,145
1941-42	..	2,938	3,46,630	1945-46	..	10,994	22,02,853
1942-43	..	548	67,602	1946-47	..	340,752	8,17,43,871

Exports (*Gold coin and Bullion*)

		Quantity (ounces)	*Value (Rs.)*			*Quantity (ounces)*	*Value (Rs.)*
1939-40	..	3,437,319	37,28,46,245	1943-44	..	10,899	22,50,391
1940-41	..	1,019,872	12,89,77,913	1944-45	..	4,040	8,21,513
1941-42	..	186,355	2,14,99,346	1945-46	..	21,063	49,94,645
1942-43	..	30,309	47,94,950	1946-47	..	103,018	1,52,24,708

CENTRAL BUDGET

India's Public Revenue and Expenditure

(*In Crores of Rupees*)

			Revenue (1)	*Expenditure* (2)	*Surplus* (+) *or Deficit* (—)	*P.C. of* (1) *to* (2)
1939-40	..	..	94·57	94·57	..	100·0
1940-41	..	..	107·65	114·18	— 6·53	94·3

1941-42	134·57	147·26	— 12·69	91·4
1942-43	176·88	289·05	—112·17	61·2
1943-44	252·06	441·84	—189·78	57·0
1944-45	335·57	496·71	—161·14	67·6
1945-46	360·67	484·57	—123·90	74·4
*1947-48 (*Interim*)	172·80	197·39	— 24·59	87·5
1947-48 (*Revised*)	178·77	185·29	— 6·52	96·48
1948-49 (*Budget*)	255·24	257·37	— 2·13	99·17

Important Heads of Revenue

(In Crores of Rupees)

	1938-39	(*Revised*) 1946-47	(*Revised*) 1947-48†	(*Budget*) 1948-49
Customs	40·51	87·50	54·50	80·76
Central Excise Duties	8·66	42·78	20·72	45·97
Corporation Tax	2·04	69·53	40·43	49·80
Taxes on Income	15·24	87·74	74·57	87·58
Currency & Mint	0·58	15·75	1·25	9·40
Rly. Contribution	1·37	5·61	..	4·50
Posts & Telegraphs	0·19	4·78	2·14	0·78
Total Tax Revenue	76·35	300·58	191·79	266·61
P.C. of taxes on income to total Tax Revenue	22·6	52·2	60·0	51·5
Excess Profits Tax	..	12·0	4·90	2·00
Profits on the Reserve Bank	0·20	13·43	..	7·02

India's Total Interest-Bearing Obligations

(Including unfunded Debt and Deposits)

	Crores		*Crores*
1939-40	1,203·86	1944-45	1,860·44
1940-41	1,247·67	1945-46	2,282·38
1941-42	1,209·21	1946-47	2,359·36
1942-43	1,353·13	1947-48 (Budget)	2,476·66
1943-44	1,532·47	1947-48 (Revised)	2,162·34
		1948-49 (Budget)	2,214·27

Defence Expenditure

(On India's account)

(In Crores of Rupees)

1937-38	86·61	1943-44	479·30
1938-39	85·15	1944-45	559·54
1939-40	94·57	1945-46	499·50
1940-41	114·10	1946-47	383·48
1941-42	147·26	1947-48 (Interim)	197·39
1942-43	341·56	1947-48 (Revised)	185·29
		1948-49 (Budget)	257·37

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* Interim budget covering 7½ months: 15th August, 1947 to 31st March, 1948.

† The budget covers 7½ months: 15th August, 1947 to 31st March, 1948.

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PROVINCIAL BUDGETS

The final accounts of the provinces excluding West Bengal and East Punjab for the year 1946-47 show total revenue and expenditure at Rs. 169·78 crores and Rs. 162·17 crores respectively as against the revised estimates of Rs. 168·72 crores and Rs. 167·25 crores. The final accounts revealed a surplus of Rs. 7·61 crores. The increase in revenue is due to larger tax collections while the rise in expenditure is accounted for by the increased cost of civil administration and social services.

The combined budget estimates of all the provinces of the Dominion for 1948-49 place total revenue at the 242·77 crores and total expenditure at Rs. 258·27 crores, the respective deficit being Rs. 15·50 crores. Deficits have been anticipated by six provinces, *vis.*, Bombay, West Bengal, United Provinces, East Punjab, Assam and Orissa.

As compared with the revised estimates for 1947-48, the combined budget estimates of all provinces for 1948-49 show an increase of Rs. 35·73 crores under revenue, partly because of the fact that in the case East Punjab and West Bengal Budget for 1948-49 cover a full year whereas the previous year it related only to 7½ months and also due to the rise in the provincial quota of Income-tax. An important point to be noted in this connection is the inclusion by provinces under revenue of grants made by the Central Government towards post-war development and Grow-More-Food Campaigns. The policy of prohibition is expected to curtail the income under excise to the extent of nearly Rs. 9·74 crores.

On the expenditure side of the provincial budgets, the anticipated increase of Rs. 47·19 crores in 1948-49 over last year's revised estimates is again partly due to East Punjab and West Bengal's budgets being for 7½ months for previous year, while 1948-49 budget is for full one year; and also due to the increased expenditure on security services. Other factors of increase are revised pay scales, subsidies for food, literacy programmes, industrial developments and above all relief and rehabilitation of refugees.

In order to cover the deficit amounting to Rs. 15·50 crores, the Provincial Governments have decided to increase the rates of existing taxee and or impose fresh taxation. The enhancements are (*a*) sales-tax, (*b*) entertainment tax, (*c*) betting tax, (*d*) duty on intoxicants. New taxes proposed are (1) stamp duty, (2) general sales tax and tax on agriculture.

Other features in the provincial budgets are (1) gradual nationalisation of road transport services, (2) appointment of committees to suggest economies, (3) setting up of Industrial Finance Corporations by several Governments.

Budgetary Position of the Provinces
(In lakhs of Rupees)

	1946-47		1947-48 (*Revised*)		1948-49 (*Budget*)	
	Revenue	*Expenditure*	*Revenue*	*Expenditure*	*Revenue*	*Expenditure*
Madras ..	57.00	56.99	53,19	55,19	55,94	55,94
Bombay ..	40,18	36,42	43,49	42,93	41,38	44,02

West Bengal ..	..	..	18,88	16,47	31,19	31,97
United Provinces ..	32,65	32,63	39,36	39,70	45,87	50,57
East Punjab ..	5,28	7,58	6,32	13,30	11,13	17,82
Bihar	16,27	14,39	17,93	16,90	21,57	20,09
C. P. & Berar ..	11,88	11,55	12,40	12,40	15,75	15,74
Assam	7,19	5,70	6,97	7,62	13,12	14,61
Orissa	4,61	4,49	6,50	6,57	6,82	7,51

Subventions and other payments from the Centre to the Provinces

(In crores of Rupees)

	Income-tax	*Jute duty*	*Subventions*	*grants-inaid*	*Total*
1943-44 ..	19·50	1·38	2·75	3·00	26·63
1944-45 ..	26·56	1·49	1·70	7·00	36·75
1945-46 ..	28·75	1·57	1·70	8·00	40·02
1946-47 ..	29·87	2·87	1·70	..	34·44
*1947-48 (Revised)	29·74	1·28	0·44	1·40	32·86
1948-49 (Budget)	36·41	0·93	0·70	2·25	40·29

Provincial Government Treasury Bills

(In Thousand of Rupees)

	Amount tendered	*Amount sold*	*Amount outstanding*	*Average rate of discount p.c. per annum*
1941-42	18,14,25	8,15,00	1,00,00	0 13 8
1942-43	9,67,50	4,35,00	80,00	0 13 1
1943-44	65,63,50	45,65,00	17,30,00	0 14 9
1944-45	89,65,00	53,50,00	10,00,00	0 8 11
1945-46	58,52,00	35,50,00	11,10,10	0 7 0
1946-47	25,66,50	16,50,00	9,00,00	0 7 10
1947-48	4,00,00	4,00,00	..	0 8 0

Total Budgetary Position of all Provinces

(In Lakhs of Rs.)

	Total Revenue	*Total Expenditure*	*Surplus or deficit (+ —)*	*Debt outstanding on 31st March*
1939-40	90,83	89,22	+ 1,61	167,61
1940-41	97,48	95,18	+ 2,30	169,91
1941-42	107,41	103,48	+ 3,93	169,15
1942-43	124,31	118,18	+ 6,13	170,20
1943-44	163,31	153,85	+ 9,46	196,28
1944-45	208,18	204,28	+ 3,90	174,35
1945-46 .. .	229,33	218,14	+11,19	162,97
1946-47	169,78	162,17	+ 7,61	103,96
1947-48	207,04	221,08	— 4,04	119,88
1948-49 (Budget) ..	242,77	258,27	—15,50	..

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* Figures relate to 7½ months 15th August, 1947 to 31st March, 1948.

Debt Position of Provinces

(In Lakhs of Rs.)

1939-40	1,67,61	1943-44	1,96,28
1940-41	1,69,91	1944-45	1,74,35
1941-42	1,69,15	1945-46	1,62,97
1942-43	1,70,26	*1946-47	1,57,79
		*1947-48	1,19,88

INDEX NUMBERS AND PRICES

Price Trends in India—The cause of the rising of general level of prices in 1947-48 are as follows—

(1) Overall decline in agricultural and industrial production.

(2) Output of major industries, such as jute manufactures, cotton textiles, cement, paper, matches and chemicals indicated a decline from the previous year's levels.

(3) Restrictions on imports necessitated by the gap in the country's external payments.

(4) Increases in salaries and wages to meet a part of the rise in the cost of living allowed by private enterprise supported in certain cases by the award of industrial courts and by the government which had the effect of increasing purchasing power and accentuating inflationary forces.

(5) The continuance of controls, a part from the administrative defects in their working, tended to perpetuate conditions of relative scarcity, causing in turn the prices of the controlled commodities to rise.

(6) Increase of money supply (comprising rupee coin, notes and Bank deposits) had the effect of further augmenting the cash balances of institutions and individuals accumulated during the war period and pressing against limited supplies of currently produced goods.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in India by Groups of Articles

Week Ended August 1939 = 100; Source: Economic Adviser of the Government of India

	Agriculture Commodities	*Raw materials*	*Primary articles*	*Manufactured articles*	*Cost of Living (Bombay)*	*General Index*
1939-40 ..	127·5	118·8	124·2	131·5	105	125·6
1940-41 ..	108·6	121·5	113·4	119·8	109	114·8
1941-42 ..	124·2	146·9	132·5	154·5	122	137·0
1942-43 ..	166·2	165·9	166·0	190·4	166	171·0
1943-44 ..	268·7	185·0	132·5	251·7	226	236·5
1944-45 ..	265·4	206·0	240·5	258·3	225	244·2
1945-46 ..	272·8	210·0	246·2	240·0	228	244·9
1946-47 ..	313·8	235·3	280·0	259·1	252	275·4
1947-48 ..	356·9	354·0	312·6	287·8	268	307·0

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* Figures relate to provinces in the Dominion of India only, figures for 1946-47 however include those of the undivided provinces of Punjab and Bengal.

Certain Industrial Articles

	Sugar	*Kerosine*	*Petrol*	*Cotton manufactures*	*Jute manufactures*	*cement*
1939-40 ..	121	109	109	117	178	109
1940-41 ..	100	121	125	118	186	114
1941-42 ..	102	138	135	117	181	118
1942-43 ..	127	185	163	292	183	136
1943-44 ..	146	186	167	422	249	175
1944-45 ..	158	176	170	293	252	211
1945-46 ..	167	169	163	271	252	202
1945-46 ..	167	169	163	271	252	202

Cost of Living and Wholesale Prices

(Base—January-June 1939=100)

	Calcutta Wholesale Prices*	*Bombay† Cost of Living*
1939 ..	109	102
1940 ..	121	108
1941 ..	141	120
1942 ..	187	151
1943 ..	311	223
1944 ..	302	229
1945 ..	292	227
1946 ..	328	250

Index Number of Wholesale Prices and Cost of Living

January-June 1939=100

	Calcutta	*Bombay*	*U. K.*		*U. S. A.*	
	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.
1938 ..	96	102	104	102	103	102
1939 ..	109	102	106	103	101	100
1940 ..	121	108	140	120	103	101
1941 ..	141	120	157	130	114	106
1942 ..	187	151	164	130	129	118
1943 ..	311	223	167	129	135	125
1944 ..	302	229	171	131	136	127
1945 ..	292	227	174	132	138	130
1946 ..	328	250	180	132	158	141

Index Numbers of Prices of Indian Securities

[1927-28: = 100 Prepared by the Economic Adviser of the Govt. of India]

Average of months

	Govt. Securities	*Fixed Yield Industrial Securities*	*Cotton (22 Shares)*	*Iron & Steel (3 Shares)*	*Jute (20 Shares)*
1939-40 ..	111·2	134·5	85·1	539·3	64·3
1940-41 ..	114·6	147·5	85·1	507·1	54·6
1941-42 ..	115·9	155·9	111·0	504·3	57·2

P.—Wholesale prices.
C.—Cost of living.

1942-43 ..	115·0	144·9	146·6	441·5	53·9
1943-44 ..	117·2	164·3	198·8	555·9	65·6
1944-45 ..	118·0	176·2	185·2	557·5	79·3
1945-46 ..	118·6	187·0	199·0	651·1	100·9
1946-47 ..	120·6	197·8	267·1	787·2	133·3
1947-48 ..	117·2	169·9	194·3	525·9	90·7

	Coal (13 Shares)	*Tea (19 Shares)*	*Banking (8 Shares)*	*Paper (2 Shares)*
1939-40	164·5	69·0	116·6	346·7
1940-41	149·0	67·5	123·8	299·4
1941-42	152·5	77·7	133·3	323·9
1942-43	161·3	86·9	144·9	359·9
1943-44	227·2	118·0	190·9	488·0
1944-45	298·1	120·3	194·1	510·1
1945-46	356·4	131·8	217·6	599·2
1946-47	408·8	170·5	286·7	888·1
1947-48	260·7	145·5	222·6	609·3

General Index of Prices of Industrial Securities

(1927-28 = 100)

(as prepared by the Economic Adviser of the Govt. of India)

	General Index		*General Index*
1939-40	120·5	1943-44	182·2
1940-41	117·4	1944-45	197·3
1941-42	129·0	1945-46	220·8
1942-43	138·6	1946-47	268·6
		1947-48	191·9

STERLING BALANCES

New Agreement

A three-year agreement has been concluded between India and U. K. on India's sterling balances in 1948. The agreement dealt with three main matters: (*a*) Payment to be made to Britain for British Defence Stores and installations taken over by the Government of India before partition, (*b*) Financial arrangements for the payment of Sterling pensions payable by the Government and the Provinces of India, (*c*) future arrangements for releases from sterling balances and the provision of hard currencies to meet India's and Pakistan's requirements abroad.

The principal details of the agreements are as follows:—

Defence Stores, etc.—India will pay to the U.K. on behalf of herself and Pakistan £100,000,000 (Rs. 133·3 crores) in respect of defence stores and fixed assets taken over by the Government of India before partition. This sum to be found from the joint sterling balances of the two Dominions. On the other hand, the U.K. will pay £55,000,000 in cash to India and

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* Calcutta = *Ind. Trade Journal.*

† Bombay = *Labour Gazette.*

Pakistan in settlement of the balances due under the normal working of the Indian Defence Expenditure Plan (under which Britain and 'pre-partition' India shared Indian war expenditure for the defence of the country in certain ratio).

Pensions—Under the partition arrangements, the initial responsibility for the payment of all pensions by undivided India was taken over by India. India and Pakistan will pay to the U.K. out of their sterling balances £176,250,000 as a capital sum to purchase an annuity to cover their respective liabilities for pensions paid in sterling to former Indian Civil servants of the Central and Provincial Governments and former members of the Indian armed forces. For the next three years the present machinery for the disbursement of pensions (through Commonwealth Relations Office in respect of military pensions and the Dominion High Commissioner's Office in respect of civil pensions) will continue, whilst consultations about arrangements in subsequent years will take place before the end of three-year period.

In addition Pakistan purchased a separate annuity against a capital sum of £8,000,000 payable out of Pakistani sterling balances, out of which will be met the sterling pensions payable to the provinces now forming part of the Dominion.

Sterling Balances Arrangements with India—The existing arrangements regarding the control of sterling balances were extended for a further 3-year period from July 1, 1948. No further release from No. 2 (blocked) to No. 1 (Free) Account will be made in the first year (July 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949) owing to the present high level of the balance on the No. 1 Account (officially stated in London to be in the region of £80,000,000), but in each of two succeeding years 1949-50 and 1550-51 upto £40,000,000 will be made available from No. 2 Account to prevent the balance on the No. I account falling below £60,000,000.

Indian Hard Currency Requirements—Owing to the uncertainties of the world situation, the arrangement on this point is limited to the year ending June 30, 1949, India agreeing to limit her hard currency expenditure to the equivalent of £15,000,000 drawn from the sterling area's central reserves. This amount had been agreed in the light of India's needs for supplies necessary for the maintenance and development of her productive capacity compared with the drawings of £10,000,000 during the first half of 1948 and still heavier drawings in 1947, thus representing a further contraction in Indian drawings.

Periodic Consultations—The three governments will consult periodically in the working of the agreements, in addition to the consultations required on hard currency drawings after 1949 and the fate of the remaining sterling balances after June 30, 1951.

The details of the agreement as announced by Mr. Sanmukham Chetty, the Finance Minister were an follows:—

1. The book value of the British Ministry Stores and installations taken over by India was of the order of £375,000,000 (Rs. 500 crores).

2. The annual pensions liability was of the order of £6,250,000 (Rs. 8 crores), the annuity bought with starting with £6,300,000 this (1948) year and gradually tapering off to nil in 60 years.

3. The total pensions liability of the central government had been fixed at £147,500,000 (Rs. 197 crores) and of the Provinces at £20,500,000 (Rs. 27 crores).

4. With unspent balance of No. 1 Account of £80,000,000 from earlier releases and with the new release of £80,000,000 the total available Sterling exchange for the three years covered by the agreement would be £160,000,000 (Rs. 213 crores).

5. Current Indian exports and other currency gains were of the order of Rs. 500 crores every year, so that with the Rs. 213 crores available on No. 1 Account, India's buying capacity for the period 1948-51 would be over Rs. 1,700 crores, not taking into account any increase in exports.

6. After various adjustments had been carried out, India's share of the total remaining Sterling balances was estimated at £800,000,000 (Rs. 1,067 crores), out of which £200,000,000 (Rs. 267 crores) might be considered as a normal currency reserve, leaving, together with the amount in the No. 1 Account, a balance of about £600,000,000 (Rs. 800 crores) available.

Genesis of Sterling Balances

India has always held sterling in the United Kingdom as part of her currency reserve. The pattern of our trade and our balance of payment position necessitated in the past of the maintenance of a certain amount of our resources in sterling. Under the Reserve Bank of India account less than two-fifths of the total assets of the Bank should consist of gold, bullion and sterling securities. Under this provision even before the war the Reserve Bank always held sterling balances of varying amounts. The amount that was thus held immediately before the war was about 48 million pounds (Rs. 640 million). The Sterling balances of India at the time of the commencement of our London negotiations were about £1,160 million (Rs. 15,470 million). Large accumulations of Sterling Balances occurred during the war as a result of the various fiancial and commercial transactions. The principal sources of accumulations were the reimbursements in sterling to the Government of India by the United Kingdom Government for the purchase of stores and other materials from India and certain other expenditure incurred by us on account of the U.K. Government and the Governments of Allied Nations. A section of the Reserve Bank Act which imposed on the Bank the obligation to buy sterling to an unlimited extent was utilised for financing these supplies. It was not intended that this section should be utilised for such purposes. The payments in sterling which were made by the British Government or meeting their share of war time expenditure were handed over by the Government of India to the Reserve Bank in exchange for rupees. The sterling thus became the property of the Reserve Bank and has been invested or deposited with Bank of England. It is thus clear, that our sterling balances do not represent an inter-governmental war debt in any sense of the term. They are the aggregate of sums received in final settlement of a number of transactions in accordance with agreed financial and other arrangements for the prosecution of the war and the sharing of its burdens. It should be noted that

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over and above the expenditure incurred by India which was recoverable from the United Kingdom Government and the allied Governments, India incurred enormous expenditure on her own account during the war.

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS

NEW CONSTITUTION OF THE CONGRESS

The Object—The object of the Indian National Congress is the well-being and advancement of the people of India and the establishment in India by peaceful and legitimate means of a Co-operative Commonwealth based on equality of opportunity and of political, economic and social rights and aiming at world peace and fellowship.

Constituents—The Indian National Congress will comprise: (*a*) Primary members, (*b*) Primary Congress Panchayats in a village in a group of villages, in a ward of a town or in a part of a town,, (*c*) District Congress Committees and such intermediate Committees as the P.C.C. may decide, (*d*) Provincial Congress Committees, (*e*) All India Congress Committee, (*f*) Working Committee, (*g*) Annual Session of the Congress, (*h*) (*i*) Committees or Associations organized or created or affiliated by the A.I.C.C. or the Working Committee, (*ii*) Committees organised or created by any Provincial Congress Committee in accordance with the rules framed by it on that behalf and approved by the Working Committee

Territorial Jurisdiction

Provinces	*H. Q.*	*Provinces*	*H. Q.*
Ajmer	Ajmer	Rajputana	Jaipur
Andhra	Bezwada	Vindhya Pradesh	Rewa
Assam	Gauhati	Karnatak	Hugli
Bihar	Patna	Kerala	Calicut
Bengal	Calcutta	Mahakosal	Jubbulpur
Bombay (city)	Bombay	Maharastra	Poona
Guzarat	Ahmedabad	Nagpur	Nagpur
Delhi	Delhi	Punjab	Jullundur
Himachal Pradesh	Simla	Tamilnad	Madras
Modhya Bharat	Indore	United Provinces	Lucknow
Patiala & East Punjab Union	Patiala	Utkal	Cuttuck
		Vidharba (Berar)	Akola

States Congresses and Their Jurisdiction

Rajputana P. C. C.—Includes Rajasthan Union, Matsya Union, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Bikaner ad Jaisalmer, Sirohi and Danta States will continue to be attached provisionally to Rajputana P. C. C.

Mudhya Bharat P. C. C.—Includes Gwalior-Indore-Malwa Union and Bhopal.

Vindhya Pradesh P. C. C.—Includes Rewa and Bundelkhand.

Himachal Pradesh—Includes Himachal States and Bilaspur.

Patiala and E. Punjab States Union P. C. C.—Includes Patiala and East Punjab States.

Term of Congress Committee—The term of Primary Congress Panchayat and other Congress Committees shall ordinarily be three years.

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States—The States which have acceded to the Indian Union shall be treated for the purpose of the Congress organisation as any other part of India. These States will constitute either new provinces or be assigned to existing provinces as the Working Committee may deem fit.

Affiliation—The Congress shall affiliate the following autonomous bodies: (1) A.I.S.A.; (2) A.I.V.I.A.; (3) Hindustani Talimi Sangh; (4) Harijan Sevak Sangh; (5) Goseva Sangh.

Membership—(1) *Primary Membership*—any person of the age of 21 years and over who believes in Congress objective, shall, on making a written declaration to that effect in Form 'A' be deemed to be Primary members of the Congress; (2) *Qualified Membership*—A primary member shall be deemed to be a qualified member if he fulfils the following conditions—(*a*) a habitual wearer of certified Khadi made from handspun yarn and a teetotaller, (*b*) does not observe or believe in untouchability, (*c*) must be believer in inter-communal unity and have respects for the faiths of other people, (*d*) must believe on equality of opportunity and status for all irrespective of race, creed or sex—provided that he is not a member of any political party, communal or other, which has a separate membership, constitution and programme. (3) *Effective Membership*—a qualified member shall be deemed to be an effective member provided he devotes regularly a part of his time to some form of national or constructive activity as laid down from time to time by the Congress.

Congress Session—The session of the Congress shall be ordinarily held annually at the time and place decided upon by A. I. Congress. A *special session* of the Congress shall be held in case the A.I.C.C. so decides or a majority of P.C.C.'s by special resolution, request the President of the Congress to convene such a special session.

Working Committee—shall consist of the President of the Congress Session, a Treasurer and eighteen members including one or more Secretaries. All the members of the Working Committee shall be appointed by the President.

Flag—Flag of the Congress shall be of tricolour (Saffron, White and Green) with Charkha in the centre and shall be made out of handspun and hand woven cloth.

CONGRESS DATES

1885—Establishment of the Congress in 1885 by A. O. Hume and first session in Bombay on 28th December, 1885; **1906**—Dadabhai Naoroji, in his presidential address at Calcutta proclaimed *Swaraj* or Self-Government as in the Colonies as the goal of the Congress; **1907**—Split in the ranks of the Congress at Surat when the annual session was wrecked; **1919**—Moderates separated from Congress finally; **1920**—Mahatma Gandhi joined Congress and it passed under his control; first civil disobedience movement started on March 19, 1920; **1921**—Four anna membership of the Congress was first introduced; **1923**—First entry of a strong Congress party in the Central Legislature (Swaraj Party) for wrecking the reforms; **1927**—At the annual session, Congress declared the goal of Indian people was complete national independence; **1928**—Congress agreed to accept Dominion Status if granted before the end of 1929; **1929**—In fulfilment of its previous resolution Congress at Lahore passed Complete Independence or *Purna Swaraj* resolution; Congress institutes 26th Jan. 1930 an annual

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Independence Day to be observed for the first time on the 26th January; **1930**—Civil Disobedience movement started by the Congress for Government's failure to accede to Congress demand; **1931**—C. D. movement suspended on the conclusion of Gandhi-Irwin Pact when Congress agreed to join Second Round Table Conference with Mahatma Gandhi as sole representative; **1932**—Congress activities suppressed by the Government and organization declared unlawful; **1934**—Congress withdrew Civil Disobedience movement; **1935**—Congress celebrated Golden Jubilee in December; **1937**—Congress started parliamentary activities under Government of India Act of 1935 and swept the polls at general elections held all over India and Congress ministries established in seven out of 11 provinces; first village Congress at Faizpur; **1939**—Congress ministers tendered resignations as Congress could not support Britain in the imperialistic world war; **1940**—Congress rejected Viceroy's August offer of the expansion of Viceroy's Executive Council and for drawing up of a new constitution after the end of war as it was wholly opposed not only to principle of democracy but also to the best interests of India; **1940**—Congress starts anti-war individual Civil Disobedience movement restricted to limited number of Congressmen; **1942**—Congress rejected Sir Stafford Cripp's offer of Dominion Status; All-India Congress Committee passed *'Quit India'* resolution at Bombay on 8th August, 1942; and the Government launched full repressive measures against the Congress by the wholesale arrests of its leaders and the Congress organisation was banned throughout most of British India. **1944**—Mahatma Gandhi and members of Congress Working Committee released; **1945**—Fresh plan for an interim Government proposed by British Government through Lord Wavell, was accepted by the Congress, but it broke down at Simla Conference due to insistence of the Muslim League of Congress-League parity; **1946**—British Cabinet Mission's proposal regarding Indian independence.—Interim Government formed at the centre by the Congress; **1947**—British transfers power to India to the Congress on 15th August, 1947; Division of India into India and Pakistan; **1948**—First session of the Congress in an Indian State (Jaipur).

CONGRESS OFFICE-BEARERS

President—Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya.
General Secretaries—Mr. Shankarrao Deo and Kala Venkata Rao.
Treasurer—Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel.

WORKING COMMITTEE OF THE CONGRESS

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru
Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel
Maulana Abul Kalam Azad
Pandit Govind Ballabh Pant
Sardar Pratap Singh
Dr. P. C. Ghosh
Shri Jagjiwan Ram
Dr. Rajendra Prasad
Shri Kamaraja Nadar
Shri Deveswara Sharma
Shri S. Nijalingappa
Shri Gokulbhai Bhatt
Shri Ram Sahay
Shri Kala Venkata Rao
Mr. Rafi Ahmed Kidwai
Shri S. K. Patil
Prof. N. G. Ranga
Shri Shankerrao Deo
Mrs. Sucheta Kripalani

Congress Parliamentary Board

Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya (*Chairman*)

Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel
Maulana Abul Kalam Azad
Dr. Rajendra Prasad
Kala Venkata Rao (*Secretary*)

PROVINCIAL CONGRESS PRESIDENTS

Ajmer—Kanaiyalal Khadiwala
Andhra—Prof. N. G. Ranga
Assam—Deveswara Sharma
West Bengal—Dr. Suresh Ch. Banerjee
Bihar—Prajapati Misra
Delhi—Mrs. Aruna Asaf Ali.
Gujrat—Kanaiyalal N. Desai
Karnatak—S. Nijalingappa
Kerala—K. Kelappan
Bombay—S. K. Patil
Mahakoshal—Seth Govind Das
Maharashtra—B. S. Hirey
Nagpur—M. S. Kanamwar
E. Punjab—Giani Gurumukh Singh
Tamilnad—K. Kamraja Nadar.
U.P.—Purshotamdas Tandon
Utkal—Mrs. Malati Chaudhury
Vidarbha—Gopalrao Khedkar
Mysore—Shri Nijalingappa
Rajputana—Shri Gokulbhai Bhatt

HISTORICAL DATES OF INDIA

B.C.

3000 (about)—Pre-Aryan civilisation of Mahenjo-Daro.
1600—First Aryan Settlement of the Gangetic Plain.
1000-500—Formation of *Vedas*.
800-500—The Upanishads.
599-527—Mahavira, the founder of *Jainism*.
563-483—Buddha.
500—Earliest *Puranas*.
325—Alexander's Invasion.
322-298—Chandragupta Maurya—First Emperor of India.
269—Asoka: Accession.

A.D.

120—Kaniksha, the Kushan King.
320-530—Gupta Dynasty.
330—Samudragupta.
375—Chandragupta (Vikramadiya): Kalidas.
606-648—Harsha.
712—Arab invasion of Sind.
750—Rise of Pallava Kingdom.
760—Kailash Temple.
820—Death of Sankaracharyya.
900—Rise of Chola Kingdom.
1008—First invasion of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni.
1192—Battle of Thaneswar; Prithviraj and Ghori.
1206-1526—Sultanate of Delhi.
1288-1293—Marco Polo in India.
1294—Alauddin captures Deogiri.
1336—Foundation of Vijayanagar.
1398—Taimur's invasion.
1409—Birth of Guru Nanak, founder of Sikh religion.
1949—Vasco da Gama arrived at Calicut, 20th May.
1526—1st battle of Panipat: Babar and Lodi.
1556-1605—Akbar.
1556—2nd battle of Panipat where Akbar defeats the Pathans.
1565—Fall of Hindu Kingdom of Vijaynagar.
1600—Foundation of E. I. Co.
1602—Dutch E. I. Co. founded.
1604—French E. I. Co. founded.
1628-58—Shah Jahan.
1630—Birth of Sivaji.
1632-55—Building of Tajmahal.
1640—E.I.Co's Factory at Hooghly
1645—June 30, Tajmahal at Agra completed by Shah Jehan.
1661—English get Bombay as of dowry of Catherine of Braganza.
1690—English founded Calcutta.
1696—E. I. Co. built Fort William
1707—Death of Aurangzib

1793—Invasion by Nadir Shah.

1756—Seraj-ud-dowla becomes Nawab and takes Calcutta.

1757—Battle of Plassey establishes British rule in Bengal.

1760—Battle of Wandiwash.

1761—3rd Battle of Panipath (end or French Power and of Marhatta Power).

1774—Warren Hastings becomes first Governor-General.

1775—Maharaja Nandkumar hanged (5th August).

1780—First English newspaper *Hickey's Bengal Gazette* started in Calcutta, 29th January, 1780.

1784—Pitt's Act establishes Board of Control.

1788—Trial of Warren Hastings.

1827—Right to sit as jurors was extended to Indians.

1828—Raja Rommohan Roy founds Brahmo Samaj.

1829—Abolition of *Suttee*.

1832—Macaulay's minute (beginning of English education).

1839—June 27, Ranjit Singh of Lahore died.

1853—First Railway opened in India.

1854—Electric Telegraph introduced in India. 23rd March.

1854—First Legislative Council met in India.

1856—Hindu Widow Remarriage Act passed.

1857-58—Sepoy Mutiny.

1857—June 24, Calcutta University founded.

1858—E. I. Co., dissolved; Govt. of India transferred to British Crown.

1858—Queen's Proclamation.

1862—July 12, High Court of Calcutta was inaugurated.

1862—I. C. S. Act & Indian High Courts Act & India Council's Act passed by Parliament.

1875—Dayananda Saraswati founds *Arya Samaj*.

1885—Indian National Congress established on 28th December.

1877—Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.

1887—Feb. 16, Jubilee of Queen Victoria in India.

1905—Partition of Bengal (rise of militant nationalism).

1909—Indian Councils Act passed enlarging legislative councils.

1911—First aerial post in India was carried from Allahabad Exhibition to 6 miles off. First English King landed in India.

1912—Transfer of the Govt. of India from Calcutta to Delhi.

1914—German cruiser *Emden* shells Madras (22nd Sept.).

1916—Home Rule League formed, Lucknow Pact.

1917—Declaration of Secretary of State promising responsible government to India.

1918—Montague-Chelmsford Report.

1919—Rowlatt Act passed—Tragedy at Amritsar (13th April) First Indian to be made a peer, Lord Sinha.

1920—Hunter Commission's report; Inauguration of non-co-operation movement by Gandhi.

1921—Moplah Rebellion—Prince of Wales' visit to Ind. (No. 7, 1921)

1922—Chauri-Chaura outrage: Bardoli Resolutions: Mahatma Gandhi's arrest, trial and imprisonment for six years.

1924—Swarajist Party enters Legislatures.

1925—Death of C. R. Das.

1926—Currency Commission fixes the gold ratio of Re. at 1*s*. 6*d*.

1927—A Statutory Commission set up under Sir John Simon.

1929—Lahore Congress passes Independence Resolution.

1929—April 7, 1st Imperial Airways plane carrying mails from England landed at Karachi.

1930—April 1, Civil Disobedience movement by Congress—R. T. Conference—1st Session, November, 12.

1931—Mar. 4, Gandhi-Irwin Pact signed.—Round Table Conference (2nd Session). Gandhi, sole representative of the Congress.

1932—Suppression of the Congress; Gandhi's fast from Sept. 20 to 26, which resulted in Poona Pact.

1934—Reserve Bank Act passed—Royal Ind. Navy inaugurated.

1935—Govt. of India Act passed—Orissa and Sind constituted seperate province—May 20, Severe earthquake at Quetta.

1937—Prov. Autonomy in all Provinces under the Govt. of India Act of 1935 (1st April).—Congress takes office in 7 provinces.

1939—Declaration of 2nd World War (Sept. 3, 1939)—Congress protest against India being declared a belligerent without her consent and Congress ministries resign in all provinces.

1940—Congress Working Committee demands complete independence.

1942—India rejects British Govt.'s offer of 'Dominion Status' sent through Sir Stafford Cripps.

1942—Congress 'Quit India' Resolution on August 8.

1944—Release of Mahatma Gandhi; —Formation of Indian National Army under Subhas Chandra Bose at Singapore.

1945—I.N.A. Trials in India.

1946—Cabinet delegation to India and offer of Independence.

—Formation of Interim Government at the centre.

—Wide spread communal riots in India, particularly in Calcutta, Bombay, Noakhali and Bihar.

1947—Indian Independence Bill received assent of the King, July 18.

—National Flag adopted by the Constituent Assembly, July 22.

—Freedom comes to India August 15.

1948—Last British troops, 1st Battalion Somerset Light Infantry sailed from Bombay, 29th Feb.

—First large commercial vessel *Jalausha* (8,000 tons) to be built in India for 150 years was launched at Vizagapatam, 15th March.

—Assassination of Mahatma Gandhi, 30th Jan.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

UNITED NATIONS

How U. N. came—The great majority of mankind, some 1,700,000,000 eople, represented by the delegates of 50 nations resolved on June 26, 945 "to unite their strength" to create a new organisation. On at day at San Francisco, they signed the Charter which governs the nited Nations.

Purposes of the U. N.—To maintain international peace and security; develop friendly relations among nations based on equal rights and self-etermination of peoples and to take other appropriate measures to rengthen peace; to achieve co-operation in solving international economic ocial, cultural and humanitarian problems and in promoting and ouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all ithout distinction of race, sex, language or religion; to be a centre for haromonising the actions of nations in achieving these ends; these are the purposes of the United Nations.

Basic Principles—The United Nations is founded on these basic principles:

All Member States are sovereign and equal.

All are pledged to fulfil their obligations under the Charter in good faith.

All are pledged to settle their disputes by peaceful means and in such manner as not to endanger peace, security and justice.

In its international relations no Member shall use or threaten force against the territory and political independence of any state or behave in any manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations.

All are pledged to give every assistance to the United Nations when, in accordance with the Charter, it takes any action, and also *not* to give assistance to any state against which the United Nations is taking action to preserve or restore peace.

So far as it is necessary to preserve peace and security, the organization shall ensure that countries which are not Members shall also act in accordance with the principles of the Charter.

United Nations shall not intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state except when it is acting to enforce the peace.

U.N.	..	United Nations
ILO	..	International Labour Organisation
FAO	..	Food and Agriculture of the United Nations
UNESCO	..	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
ICAO	..	International Civil Aviation Organisation
WHO	..	World Health Organisation.
UPU	..	Universal Postal Union
ITU	..	International Telecommunications Union
IRO	..	International Refugee Organisation
ITO	..	International Trade Organisation

Members of the United Nations—Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Bolivi Brazil, Byelorussian S.S. Republic, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Cost Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominician Republic, Ecuado Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, France, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Hondura India, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Sibaria, Luxemburgh, Mexico, Netherland New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippi Republic, Poland, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, Ukrainian S. S. Republi South Africa, U. S. S. R., United Kingdom, U.S.A., Uruguay, Venezuel

Yugoslavia, *all original members*, Countries so far admitted by the General Assembly are:—Afganistan, Iceland, Sweden, Siam, Pakistan, Yemen.

ORGANISATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

Organisation of the United Nations—The United Nations has six principal organs—*General Assembly, Security Council, Economic and Social Council, Trusteeship Council, International Court of Justice* and *Secretariat.*

1. General Assembly—All member States are represented in the General Assembly. It is the main deliberative organ of the U.N. and the nearest equivalent yet to a Parliament of Man. Each member may have five delegates but only one vote. The General Assembly meets once a year in September. Voting is by a two-thirds on important questions and on other questions, by a simple majority.

Its main functions are to consider and make recommendations on the principles of international co-operation in the maintenance of peace and security, including the principles governing disarmament and regulation of armaments, to discuss and move recommendations on any world problem, to make recommendations for the peaceful settlement of any situation which might impair friendly relations among nations.

2. Security Council—Eleven members, five of them permanent and six elected by the General Assembly compose the Security Council, the organ on which Member States have conferred primary responsibility for maintaining peace and security. In performing its functions the Security Council acts on behalf of the Member States, all of whom have agreed to accept and carry out its decisions.

Five permanent members are China, France, the U. S. S. R. the United Kingdom and the United States. Non-permanent members are elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms and are not eligible for immediate re-election.

Its functions are to maintain international peace and security, to investigate any dispute which might lead to international friction, to use economic or military sanctions to prevent or stop aggression.

Decisions on all procedural matters are made by affirmative vote of at least seven members. Decisions on substantive matters are made by affirmative vote of seven members including the concurring votes of all the five permanents members. This is the rule of 'Great Power Unanimity' popularly referred to as the 'Veto'.

Because the maintenance of peace requires constant vigilance and may call for prompt action, the Security Council is in permanent session and generally meets at least once a fortnight.

Subsidiary organs reporting to the Security Council are:

(*a*) *Military Staff Committee*—Composed of the Chiefs of the Staff of Five permanent members, advises and assists the Security Council on questions of military requirements for maintenance of peace, etc.

(*b*) *Atomic Energy Commission* set up by the General Assembly reports to the Security Council and is accountable to it on all matters affecting security. All members of the Security Council are represented to it and in addition Canada when that country is not a member of the Security Council.

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(c) *Committee for Conventional Armaments* for the general regulation and reduction of armaments ad armed forces.

(d) *Standing Committees*—Such as Committee of Experts on rules of procedure committee on the admission of new members.

(e) *Ad hoc Committees and Commissions* established when required to deal with temporary questions.

3. **Economic and Social Council**—is composed of eighteen members elected by the General Assembly. Its functions are to be responsible for economic and social activities of the United Nations, to promote respect and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all.

The Council works through commissions and committees. Nine commissions have so far been set up. They are—(1) *Economic and Employment Commission, Transport and Communications Commission, Fiscal Commission, Statistical Commission, Population Commission, Social Commission, Human Rights Commission and Commission on Narcotic Drugs*

4. **Trusteeship Council**—United Nations accept as a sacred trust the obligations to promote the well-being of dependent peoples and their progressive development towards self-government and independence.

Further, the members of the United Nations have set up an international trusteeship system for the administration of territories placed under United Nations' supervision through trusteeship agreements.

Trusteeship system can apply to territories formerly held under the League of Nations mandate, territories taken from enemy States as outcome of World War II; territories voluntarily placed under trusteeship system.

The Trusteeship Council consists of (1) member Countries administering trust territories, (2) permanent members of the Security Council and enough other countries (elected by the General Assembly for three years terms) to make an equal division between countries which administer trust territories and countries which do not.

The present membership consists of (*a*) Administering countries—Australia, Belgium, France, New Zealand and United Kingdom; (*b*) other countries—China, Iraq (until 1950), Mexico (until 1950), U.S.S.R.; U.S.A.

Trusteeship territories—(1) New Guinea (*Australia*), (2) Ruanda-Urundi (*Belgium*), (3) French Cameroons (*France*), French Togoland (*France*), (4) Western Samoa (*New Zealand*), (5) British Cameroons, British Togoland, Tanganyika (*United Kingdom*).

5. **International Court of Justice**—Its purpose is to act as principal judicial body of the United Nations. It is a Court of law and deals with legal questions only, not with political disputes. All countries parties to the Court can refer to it any case they wish. In addition, Security Council may refer a legal dispute to the Court and all organs of the U.N. can ask the Court for an advisory opinion on any legal question.

The Court consists of Fifteen Judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council.

6. **Secretariat**—is composed of a Secretary-General appointed by the General Assembly upon the recommendation of the Security Council and such staff as the organisation may require. Secretary-General is the Chief Administrative Officer of the United Nations. He is assisted by an international staff recruited on the basis of their qualifications.

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Departments of the Secretariat—(*a*) Department of Security Council Affairs, (*b*) Department of Economic Affairs, (*c*) Department of Social Affairs, (*d*) Department of Trusteeship and Information from non-self-governing countries, (*e*) Department of Public Information, (*f*) Legal Department, (*g*) Department of Conferences and general services, (*h*) Department of Administrative and Financial Services.

SPECIALISED AGENCIES

International Labour Organisation (I.L.O.)—The I.L.O. has as its motto "If you wish for peace, work for justice." As inter-governmental agency, it seeks by international action to improve by labour conditions, raise living standards and promote economic and social stability.

In 1944 I.L.O. adopted what is known as "*Declaration of Philadelphia*" outlining the objectives of I.L.O. It affirms these principles: that labour is not a commodity; that freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress; that poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere,; and that war against want requires to be carried out on with unrelenting vigour within each nation.

It was established on 11 April, 1919, under the treaty of Versailles. I.L.O. is now a specialised body of the United Nations.

I.L.O.'s machinery consists of (1) *International Labour Conference* which is I.L.O. highest authority. It meets annually and composed of national delegations comprising two government delegates and one delegate each representing management and labour. The chief function of the Conference is to formulate international social standards in the form of conventions, (2) *governing body* comprises the representatives of 16 governments, eight management members and eight labour members. (3) *International Labour Office* which provides the Secretariat of the Conference and of the governing body. Its headquarters are at Montreal and Quebec. (4) *Industrial Committees*—Since 1945 seven Industrial Committees have been set up. These Committees bring together two representatives each of labour, management, and government from countries where a given industry is of some importance.

Food and Agriculture Organisation of United Nations (F.A.O.)—The chief aims of F. A. O. are—(*a*) To help nations raise the standard of living (2) to improve nutrition of the peoples of all countries, (3) to increase the efficiency of farming, forestry and fisheries, (4) to better the condition of rural people and, through all these means, to widen the opportunity of all people for productive work. F.A.O. was formally founded in October 1945.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)—"The purpose of the organisation" declares Article I of the UNESCO constitution "is to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for the peoples of the world, without distinction of race, sex, language or religion by the Charter of the United Nations." It was established on 16th Nov. 1945.

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development—is designed to problem of international civil aviation and establishment of international

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standards and regulations for civil aviation. The aims and objects of ICAO are to develop the principles and technique of international air navigation and to foster the planning and development of international transport. It was established on 4th April, 1947; ICAO's headquarters are at Montreal, Canada. Under the terms of the agreement ICAO is a specialised agency of the United Nations.

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development—is designed to promote the international flow of long-term capital for productive purposes and to assist in financing the rebuilding of devastated areas and the development of the resources of member countries. Loans are to be made to only member nations. The Bank's main objective is to assist in the reconstruction and development of territories of members by facilitating the investment of capital for productive purposes. Such assistance is defined as including the restoration of economies destroyed or disrupted by the war, the reconversion of productive facilities to peacetime needs, and the encouragement of the development of productive facilities and resources in less developed countries. The Bank is prohibited from making loans for political purposes or from advancing funds for charitable objectives.

Each member nation has subscribed the shares of the capital stock of the Bank which has a par value of $100,000 per share, the smallest subscription being for 2 shares and the largest, that of the United States for 31,750 shares. The total subscribed capital is in excess of eight billion dollars. An aggregate of 20 p.c. of each member nations' subscription has been called for payment.

International Monetary Fund—The purposes of the Fund are to stabilize international exchange, to hasten the removal of artificial barriers to international payments, and to provide short-term foreign exchange assistance to members, if requested, to overcome a temporary disequilibrium in their balance of payments.

It was established on 27th December 1945 and its headquarters are at 1818-H Street, Washington.

World Health Organisation (WHO)—Its purpose is the attainment by all peoples of the highest possible level of health.

Its constitution was adopted on 22nd July 1946. WHO formally came into existence as a permanent specialised agency of the United Nations at a Conference of the organisation held in Geneva from January 22—6 February, 1948, when it was announced that 20 countries had ratified the Charter of WHO.

Universal Postal Union (UPO)—Its purpose is to alleviate the uncertainty, confusion and excessive cost of international postal communications by uniting its members countries in a single postal territory for the reciprocal exchange of mail. Its aim is to insure the organisation and improvement of postal services throughout the world through international co-operation.

It was established in 1875 by Postal Convention of Berne and its headquarters are at Berne, Switzerland.

International Telecommunications Union (ITU)—The organisation through which countries now regulate international telecommunication was formed

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in 1934 but reorganized in 1947. The I.T.U. has threefold mission—(1) to maintain and extend international co-operation for the improvement and rational use of telecommunication. (2) To promote the development and most efficient operation of technical facilities by establishing standards and operating rules in order to improve telecommunication services, increase their usefulness and, as far as possible, make them generally available. (3) To harmonise the actions in the attainment of these common ends.

International Refugee Organisation (IRO)—Its purpose is to assist in the repatriation or resettlement of refugees and disposed persons; to protect their rights and legitimate interests and give them care and assistance until their repatriation or resettlement can be carried out.

International Trade Organisation (ITO)—The I.T.O. came into being on March 24, 1948. The plan of the organisation is a programme for peace in World Trade and a blue print for a balanced and expanding world economy. It points the way towards a return to multilateral trade. The I.T.O. will help to reduce trade barriers, settle trade disputes and benefit mutually by important trading privileges.

World Meteorological Organisation (WMO)—This organisation as stated in the preamble to its convention, is established with a view to co-ordinating, standardising and improving world meteorological activities and to encouraging an efficient exchange of meteorological information between countries in the aid of human activities. (Not yet established).

Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultive Organisation (IMCO)—This organisation when it comes into being—will provide inter-governmental co-operation concerning all matters relation to international shipping; to encourage the highest standards of maritine safety and efficiency of navigation; to promote the availability of shipping services to the commerce of the world without discrimination; to consider unfair restrictive protection by shipping concerns.

INDIA IS MEMBER OF THE
Following International Organisations

U. N.
I. L. O.
F. A. O.
U. N. E. S. C. O.
I. C. A. O.
International Bank
International Monetary Fund
W. H. O.
U. P. U.
I. T. O.

INDO-PAKISTAN RELATIONS, 1948

Indo-Pakistan relations over the year may naturally seem to defy rational explanations. To outsiders specially it may look like a puzzling paradox how with almost continuous hitches on important as well as paltry matters, mutual recriminations arising out of what seemed expressions of ill-will and unwillingness to carry out agreements and last but not least with the possibility at all times of the Kashmir hostilities flaring out into a regular conflagration, the Governments of the two sister dominions negotiated almost every month some economic or other agreements, or resolved some differences arising out of the partition of the country.

AGREEMENTS

(a) Agreements relating to partition and necessary allocations:—

1. On March 27 the Arbitral Tribunal for the Punjab gave its award on the 33 disputed points referred to it by the Punjab Separation Council. While ruling that East and West Punjab shall share 40% and 60% respectively of the assets and liabilities of undivided Punjab, the Tribunal fixed the value of the canals at twice the amount spent in their construction and decided that the irrigated crown land in the colony areas including irrigated forest plantations should be evaluated for the purpose of the division of assets and liabilities. According to the decisions no institution other than the Lahore Museum was to be divided about which if any disputes arose during the division by two representatives of the two provinces working under Mr. S. N. Gupta appointed by the Tribunal as the Supervisor, the matter may again be reviewed by the Tribunal. It was also provided in the award that East Punjab was to continue to supply electricity to West Punjab till the end of March, 1949 subject to the provision that during the period from March, 1948, to September, 1948, West Punjab would be entitled to 50% of the total amount generated at the Mandi project while this share would be reduced by one quarter between Oct. 1 and Dec. 31 and by another quarter in the remaining three months, the rebate charges being always six pies per unit.

2. Giving its award on the 17 references by the Bengal Separation Council, the Bengal Arbitral Tribunal set down in accordance with the the agreement by the two parties that the assets and liabilities of undivided Bengal should be shared by West and East Bengal at 35·2% and 64·8% respectively, in all except a few cases. Among the exceptions was the case of furnitures, stores etc., which though divisible according to book value, as in the case of other physical assets, were to be apportioned in in the ratio 54% to West Bengal and 44% to East Bengal, the divisible pool being limited to the following institutions: the Calcutta Medical College and its Hospitals, the School of Tropical Medicine, the Presidency College and the Presidency General Hospital of Calcutta, and the Kanchrapara T. B. Hospital. None of the institutions were to be physically divided. It was decided that, 2,134·5 miles of roads in East and West Bengal were to be regarded as assets and the financial settlement on these assets were to be arrived at according to the book value awarded by the Tribunal: Rs. 24,750 per mile for the class I roads, Rs. 19,875 for class

II, Rs. 7,875 for Class III and Rs. 281 per running foot in respect of the cost of bridges.

3. The Pakistan section of the Jodhpur State Railway which were to have been handed over to the N.-W. Railway, Pakistan on June 1 according to a previous agreement were delayed due to Pakistan's failure to make prepayment for the rolling stock, due to her by the agreement before Dec. 14, 1948. On this date the Railway was officially handed over in lieu of Rs. 45,33,000 for the stocks.

As early as Feb. 19, 1948, Dr. Matthai, Indian Minister for Transport and Railways, had announced that out of the total capital liabilities of the undivided Government of India for the railways, India accepted 50%. As to the final division of railway stores and rolling stock, complete agreement was announced on Dec. 22, 1948 after the Karachi talks by the Sub-Committees appointed for the purpose by the Inter-Dominion Conference at New Delhi in the second week of December.

4. On the question of the pre-partition claims of compensation for requisitioned property, situated in Pakistan, the Indo-Pakistan Conference at New Delhi on Dec. 1, 1948, came to the decision that the liability was to be borne by the Government of India. For the purpose of the payment of about Rs 5,39 lakhs due to over 2 lakhs of evacuees in the different districts in East Bengal, the East Bengal Government was to forward summary statements project by project to the Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Government of India.

5. The Indo-Pakistan currency and financial talks held during Mar. 31 and April 1, 1948 settled the problems arising out of Pakistan's desire to have own currency from April 1, 1948. It was decided that the Reserve Bank of India would cease to act for Pakistan from July 1, 1948 and not from Nov. 1, as agreed earlier. There was to be no exchange control, or control or transfer of funds or securities or savings bank accounts upto Sept. 30, 1948. Besides the manner of the withdrawal of India notes and the sharing of the assets of the Issue Department of the Reserve Bank of India and connected matters were agreed upon. Mentionable in this connection is the Indo-Pakistan Banking Agreement of Jan. 22, 1948 in accordance with which normal banking functions were to continue between the two dominions as before.

(b) Economic and Trade agreements:—

1. India and Pakistan signed the following mutual supply and exchange agreements some of which were, however, explanatory and corrective: Indo-Pakistan Food Agreements of Jan. 21, Mar. 24 and July 30. Indo-Pakistan (Cotton-cloth) Textile Agreements of Mar. 13, Sep. 2 and Nov. 10, the Indo-Pakistan Essential Supplies Agreements of May 26 and Oct. 27 and the Indo-Pakistan Export and Import Control Agreement of Sep. 28. The most important of these and the most far-reaching was the supply agreement of May.

As to food, 49,000 tons of rice were to be made available to India by Pakistan under the January agreement. The March agreement provided for a barter by which India was to get a total of 20,180 tons of rice from W. Pakistan in exchange of imported Australian wheat 9,030 tons, maize 12,000 tons and Argentine barley 1,500 tons. By the May Agreement Pakistan has accepted the obligation to supply 175,000 tons of food grains within the year ending August 31, 1949. Due to floods however Pakistan has not been able to supply much and has proposed unde the October agreement to complete her delivery from the *rabi* cro Under the July agreement India decided to barter 4,000 tons of importe wheat and 10,500 tons of gram with 11,000 tons of seed wheat fro Pakistan and further receive 6,500 tons of rice from West Pakistan t deliver the same amount of Burma rice to E. Pakistan thus saving th charge of sea transport.

As to cotton and cotton-textiles, transactions were first made in accordance with the ratio of 20 bales of Pakistan cotton to 12 bales of Indian cloth and yarn fixed by the March agreement. Under the terms o the general agreement of May, a long-range exchange agreement for th supply of 650,000 bales of cotton to India by Pakistan for 400,000 bales cloth from India came into force from September 1948, for one yea upto Aug. 31, 1949. The price, with the level of export duty if an and the proportions of the different varieties of cloth to be made avai able to Pakistan including a general standard of Pakistan's rate of buyi from month to month was fixed by the agreement of Nov. 10. Mea while due to difficulties connected with the lapse of monthly quotas cotton for India, Pakistan agreed on Oct. 27 to fix an export quota 360,000 bales for the period ending 31st Jan. 1949.

The Karachi Agreement of May set down the quantities of each co modity which each Dominion undertook to make available to the oth between July 1, 1948 and June 30, 1949 in all cases except that of ra cotton and cotton-textiles and food grains for which the one-year peri is to end on Aug. 31, 1949. It was also agreed that imported goo which had been shipped and paid for in either dominion before Dec. 3 1947 out of the undivided exchange account will be allowed to be re-e ported to the other dominion whenever it was established that the goo were originally intended for consumption in that dominion. Supplies we generally to be made through ordinary commercial channels, except bein subject to the usual controls for import or export if any. Both th dominions agreed not to re-export any commodity imported from the othe dominion. India on her part was to limit her export of raw jute t 900,000 bales of the usual Indian varieties. The controlled goods wer to be supplied at the controlled price in the dominion concerned. Indi took upon herself to supply to Pakistan 183,000 tons of coal (160,000 to firm), per month, 15,000 tons of steel, and scrap plus 6,000 tons of cor rugated iron sheets, and 4,000 tons of pig iron per quarter, 6,000 tons of paper, 1,500 tons of board, 270 tons of hydrochloric acid, 200 tons of nitric acid, 800 tons of magnesium sulphate, 2,500 tons of asbestos sheet, 2,500 tons of paints, enamels and varnishes, 50,000 tons of jute manufactures, 2,000 tons of myrabollams, 11,00,000 lbs. of woollen and worsted goods, 20,000 tons of mustard oil, 5,000 tons of ground-nut oil, 22,000 tons of soaps (toilet), and 7,00,000 lbs. of tobacco (flue-cured). Besides India agreed to supply leather and foot-wear upto the amount demanded by Pakistan, if Pakistan on her part sent sufficient quantity of raw hides and skins. On her part Pakistan agreed to supply to India 50 lakh bales of raw jutes, 30 lakh pieces of cow and buff hides, 15 lakh pieces of skins, 20 lakh mds. of rock salt, 5,000 tons of potassium nitrate and 550 heads of cattle. In addition Pakistan undertook to try to suppl

1,000 tons of gypsum per day and a total of 10,000 tons of soda ash, if possible.

2. On Feb. 27, 1948 Government of India declared Pakistan to be a foreign country for the purpose of levying customs with effect from March 1, 1948. In contravention to the terms of agreement at the time of Partition, Pakistan claimed for a share of export duty on jute collected at Calcutta. For this reason Govt. of India was constrained to declare Pakistan as foreign country for purpose of export and import duty. By the agreement of Sept. 28, the two governments listed some goods for exemption from the operations of import and export control. In continuation of the terms of the Indo-Pakistan agreement of April 15 relating to the movements of evacuees and in addition to that it was decided to exempt from import and export control personal and household effects intended for personal use carried in evacuee special trains, goods carried by evacuees proceeding by motor convoys, and the military and other government stores allocated to the other dominion, provided that a permit by the requisite authority covered the same.

In addition to these, the governments of the partitioned provinces in each dominion agreed to exclude from the operation of import and export control such perishable foodstuffs as used to be sold in the other dominion or bought into it before the partition. With the agreement of the respective dominions, that was achieved and customs duties are not levied on these.

(c) Political and other agreements relating to evacuees and minorities:—

The main agreements of this type were those dated April 20, Aug. 25 and Dec. 15, the last one being in fact one covering the whole field of inter-dominion relations—explanatory as well as corrective—except the matter relating to Kashmir.

The Calcutta agreement of April as supplemented by the Delhi agreement of December provided for relieving the fear-complex of the minorities resident in each dominion is always possible and the propaganda war, directed against each dominion by the press, including books and publications, public organisations, broadcasting and films. For securing better and friendly relations between the two sister dominions, provision has been made for the establishment of an Inter-Dominion Information Consulative Committee and organisations at dominion and provincial level for securing the implementation of the political and economic clauses of agreements. Provincial and district minority boards in East and West Bengal are also to be set by Feb. 15, 1949 and steps are always to be speedily taken up for remedying all complaints regarding oppression and unfair treatment of minorities. As regards incidents both on the East-West Punjab and East-West Bengal borders, the District Magistrates and other officers of the provinces and states concerned have been authorised directly to contact their opposite numbers in the other Dominion to examine and settle such incidents and take steps necessary to prevent the recurrence of such incidents in future.

As to the boundary disputes between East-West Bengal and East Bengal-Assam on the Radcliffe award, a high-power judicial tribunal is to be set up not later than Jan. 31, 1949 to resolve them. Pending an award by this Tribunal and the demarcation of the boundary in accord-

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ance with it, special provisions have been laid down to prevent the recurrence of border incidents in these areas on the basis of some interim arrangements.

As to evacuate properties, the agreement of August provided for the establishment of a Joint-Inter-Dominion Agency to deal with the subjects of transfer or disposal of movable property, assessment of the value of urban property and preparation of lists showing names of evacuee owners and rental value of the property and copying of revenue records of agricultural property and the exchange of these records between the two dominions. The area covered by the agreement was the whole of West Pakistan, excluding the unadministered agency areas, and East Punjab, Delhi, the East Punjab States, Bikaner, Ajmer-Merwara, the Matsya Union, the Rajasthan Union, Saurashtra, Jaipur, Jodhpur and the Western districts of the U.P. on the side of India. The Agency is also to act as liaison to the custodian of evacuee property in the other dominion. The Delhi agreement provided over and above these for the establishment of Evacuee Property Management Boards in East and West Bengal by Feb. 15, 1949, quick supply of information on the property to an evacuee and early collection of rents and submission of accounts. The properties of of any evacuee is not to be auctioned for arrears of tax due except one year after he has been permitted to sell or exchange his property. Agreements were also reached on the sale and transfer of shares, payment of bills or salaries due to evacuees, allowance of wards and dependents in the case of court of ward estates of such as have been released from court of wards after partition and holding in abeyance of penal conditions in case of those owners of improvement trust plots who have failed to pay instalments due from them.

(d) **Other agreements:—**

A bilateral air transport agreement, signed on June 23 at Karachi, between India and Pakistan came into operation from July 1, 1948. Besides providing for various inter-dominion routes, it allows India to ply two western routes through W. Pakistan and a far Eastern route through E. Pakistan also Pakistan will be entitled to operate air services between dominions.

DISAGREEMENTS AND CONFLICTS

The aftermath of the partition, full of blood and tears, the conflict regarding Kashmir, Hyderabad and other states, the difficulties of traffic across the newly erected customs barriers and the continued one-way traffic of refugees, both non-Muslims and Muslims, all contributed to keep up a really strained relation between the dominions in spite of the growing realization that partition has given rise to great economic disequilibrium in both the halves of the one-time united India. Peculiarly enough, India's readiness to come to terms, thrash out agreements and even temporarily take up all such liabilities that Pakistan cannot at present bear, all failed to impress, for the major part of the year, upon an unwilling Pakistan the presence in the governmental quarters of India of a real goodwill for Pakistan.

(a) **Differences on States**—The disagreements on the matter of States' accession mainly hinged on the question of the rights of the States' peoples.

The leaders of Pakistan have never been able to stand on an unequivocal policy, demanding as they did the rights of the Muslim rulers in the case of Hyderabad and Junagadh as also of the few principalities of Kathiawar while demanding the accession of Kashmir on the ground that the majority of its inhabitants are Muslims. So Pakistan could not accept India's proposal to solve the disagreement on all the disputed States, as in the case of all others, by recourse to popular verdict. Besides we have it on the authority of Lord Mountbatten, the last Viceroy of India, that all States agreed to follow their geographical alignment in relation to the new dominions and that the Government of the Indian Union made categorical assertion that they would have nothing to say if Kashmir acceded to Pakistan. But Pakistan and the rulers of Junagadh, Hyderabad and Kashmir seemed to be looking for trouble. So Junagadh and the petty principalities nearby acceded to Pakistan in spite of their being placed within the Indian enclave and Pakistan accepted the accession. Similarly the Maharaja of Kashmir wanted to enjoy both the worlds without committing himself to any, while the Nizam supported by the horde of Razakars planned with Pakistan and Portugese Goa to stab India in the belly.

1. The most dangerous political game has been the Kashmir 'affair' where Pakistan has upto the middle of the year officially denied the presence of Pakistan troops and armaments while India has had to hazard a great deal with brave decision in spite of the possibility at all times of the popular votes going against her. It was only due to international conspiracy inside and outside the UN to hide its head in the sand bank of apparent blindness to overt facts till a full-scale war between the two dominions flared out that India has not gone to war against Pakistan in spite of very grave provocation. India has had ample proof, not withstanding denials by the Pakistan Government off and on of Pakistan's participation in any form in the Kashmir raid, that not only Pakistan-trained and Pakistan-armed Pakistan nationals including some tribesmen fought in Kashmir but regular forces of Pakistan army in more and more increasing numbers took part in the flight.

While Pakistan-based raiders crossed the territory of the state of Jammu and Kashmir, India could not follow them into their den. Thus while shirking all responsibilities for the Kashmir raid, Pakistan declared in the Security Council that she was threatened by Indian thrust from the north-west through Jammu and Kashmir. Once however the Kashmir Commission began its work it became patent to it that Pakistan herself was fighting the war in Kashmir. But in spite of the undertaking given to the Commission not to worsen the situation during the talks on cease-fire, Pakistan launched offensive in three sectors. India was therefore forced to take up some corrective actions. Then came Pakistan's virtual non-acceptance of the cease-fire proposals and India's acceptance of them. India's tremendous successes in the capture of the Ledi Gali Pass, and Drass struck terror in the Pakistan Government quarters; so much so that the Pakistan Foreign Minister declared that "Pakistan was under no obligation international or otherwise which prevents her from sending her troops to Kashmir" and again threatened "an armed conflict of the most serious magnitude". But the continuous successes of the Indian troops in all fronts in the face of greatest possible odds, the successful heavy bombing of supply dumps by the RIAF and the coming financial disaster for the dominion made saner counsel prevail in the Pakistan Government to make Pakistan accept the cease-fire from midnight of Jan. 1, 1949.

2. In the case of Hyderabad, however, Pakistan made more surreptitious moves in the shape of secretly arming the state against India, planning its defence and advising the communal regime to a mood of non-co-operation with India and giving all sorts of trouble to India. By Sept. 8, Pakistan came out in the open in support of communal oligarchy in Hyderabad when the Pakistan Foreign Minister warned India against any false move on Hyderabad. In the Security Council also Pakistan kept up her role. But Pakistan's hopes of great communal troubles in India were dashed to pieces when the actual Hyderabad operations were launched by India and compelled the Nizam to surrender within four days by Sept. 17. Even after the formal calling off of the complaint against India to the Security Council by the Nizam, Pakistan has tried times without number to raise the issue again till the Security Council silenced all by closing the issue on Dec. 2. In the meantime, the Military Administration of Hyderabad found ample proof that Pakistan officials had received big funds for various purposes from the Nizam's government. And in fact India felt constrained to notify even to Security Council the fact that the Pakitan High Commissioner in London had transferred a Nizam's account of above £1 millions to his own name. Then again in the matter of the securities transferred by the Nizam to Pakistan at the beginning were refused by the Pakistan Government so that the Government of India was forced to instruct the Reserve Bank of India to issue new securities in the Nizam's name for the same amount.

3. In the matter of Junagadh and the other Kathiwar principalities which had under the inspiration of Pakistan, acceded to Pakistan to find themselves in trouble with the inhabitants of the respective states so much so that the Nawab of Junagadh had to flee from the State. Pakistan has tried in every way it could to prove a case against India in the Security Council. But India's strong stand, the result of the plebiscites in these states and India's invitation to the Security Council to undertake any number of plebiscites in these regions forced Pakistan to a retreat.

4. It came to be known in the second week of April, 1948, that Eastern Pakistan had begun a blockade against the Tripura State and that propaganda had been set afoot to force the state accede to Pakistan on grounds of contiguity. But such pressure bore ill-fruits in as much as that meant a stopping of the supply of the State forest products to Pakistan. Ravages by Pakistan citizens on the reserve forests of the State forced the State on Nov. 12 to issue an order requiring permits for Pakistan citizens for growing and cutting crops inside the territory of the State. This was in fact, the immediate effect of the burning of State revenue and forest offices by Pakistan nationals. Stern measures taken by the State against the recrudescence of such trouble and its willingness to solve the border disputes amicably was supported by the Pakistan Prime Minister when he was on a visit to East Pakistan in the last week of November. For this a great credit of course goes to the Magistrate of the district of Tippera in East Pakistan.

(b) The after-math of partition—Partition on the basis of communal majority preceded and followed by situations blighting the hopes of the utmost hopefuls was sure to create an atmosphere of suspicion and hatred and fear and non-co-operation. A state of smaller dimensions and relatively smaller resources, Pakistan was faced with a refugee problems of almost the equal proportion as that of India. And these disgruntled refugees, many of whom had lost all they had and who had vivid recollections of the darkest possible human deeds, were fanatically communal and created much trouble in India as well as in Pakistan. So communalism, even after partition did not die out, but it raised its head here and there when occasion arose. Its reaction in India was seen in the ominous atmosphere of vicious propaganda set out by the new communal organisation RSSS. At one time any trouble in one dominion was sure to have repurcussions in the form of similar trouble in the other dominion. To add to these were all the inter-dominion troubles started by Pakistan, *e.g.*, in Junagadh, Kashmir and elsewhere. The incursions into Indian territory in the frontiers of the divided Punjab, across the sands of Jaisalmer and on the disputed borders of partitioned Bengal and Assam also helped to sustain reaction in India. Practically, therefore, the hands of an unwilling Government of India was forced to draw out the majority of those non-Muslims in W. Pakistan who had been left there after the partition. On the eastern borders again, communal propaganda, and the mounting economic distress of the non-Muslims in E. Bengal due to the very natural economic non-cooperation by the Muslims made many non-Muslims cross the borders into the Dominion of India in the hope of succour.

With the opening of the year the Government of India found that it could only at risk to itself hand over the sum of Rs. 55 crores, Pakistan's remaining share of the cash balances,—to be employed against itself in arms and equipment on the Kashmir front. On the plea of absence of cordiality, as during a war the Government of India, therefore, stopped the payment on the sum. But as there was such term in the inter-dominion agreement on the division of the assets and liabilities, Mahatma Gandhi felt that this course was definitely bad and could help to worsen the relation between the dominions which meant further foreign interference. Compounding this question with the recrudescence of trouble in Delhi, Gandhiji undertook his last 'fast to death' on Jan. 13, 1948. Within two days the Government of India retraced its foot-steps and announced the immediate implementation of the financial agreement. Pakistan was surely much elated to accept the deduction of 5 crores for adjustment of post-partition financial liabilities of Pakistan. She added the pressure on India by holding up the 90 aircrafts of the Government of India. The expectation however remained unfulfilled and the planes had to be released, for India might on her part stop the arms and equipment due to Pakistan under partition. The most amazing thing occurred anyway in the U.N. Security Council where Pakistan charged the Government of India with planned 'genocide.' The ugly fumes of subterranean upheaval that found expression in the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi checked the rulers of Pakistan for some time; for they came to understand for the first time that they might overstep their capacity and not only endanger the lives of the four and a half crores of Muslims still residing in the Indian Union but also their own state, if by any mishap a communal regime took up the reins of the Government of

India. Gandhiji's martyrdom, however, marked the beginning of the end of both Muslim and Hindu communalism in India, which finally came after the successful completion of the Hyderabad operations. It is no wonder therefore that side by side with the non-Muslims coming from Pakistan, the Muslims who had left India before or after partition and who had become disillusioned with Pakistan began coming back to India by the middle of the year. This was, however, more than the Government of India could stand in spite of its earnest desire of resettling the refugees in their own homes in each dominion. The absence of the two-way traffic imposed on the Government of India the unsavoury duty of introducing 'permit system' from July 14 for the entry of the inhabitants of W. Pakistan into India. And within three days, on July 17 Pakistan was on the way of establishing similar system for entry into W. Pakistan from India. The continuous trek of minorities from East Bengal had led the Deputy Prime Minister of India on Nov. 4 to warn Pakistan that any further evacuation would force India to demand land for settling these refugees. But then these questions were again discussed at the inter-dominion conference at New Delhi held during the second week of December. Of it there is no doubt that if both the dominions have similar willingness to carry out the agreements which have been arrived at, and if there is equal desire for peaceful settlements of all disputes, then all these difficulties would solve themselves in time. Then alone the two dominions can walk abreast to bring higher and higher prosperity for each.

BROADCASTING IN INDIA

Early History -The first development of Broadcasting in India began with a Radio Club at Madras in 1924, but regular service was inaugurated by the Indian Broadcasting Company when the first station was opened in Bombay on July 23, 1927 and Calcutta station was opened on August 26, 1927. Before these dates a number of low power stations in various parts of India were working. But Indian Broadcasting Company did not prosper at all. Government of India refused any monetary help to this Company when approached. So from March, 1930, the Company went into liquidation.

But there was an universal demand that broadcasting should continue in India without any interruption. As a result of various representations, Government decided to take over the broadcasting as an experimental measure. With effect from 1st April, 1930, it was placed under the direct control of the Government of India in the department of Industries and Labour under the designation of 'Indian State broadcasting Service.'

But the position of Broadcasting in India did not improve. The Government also decided to close down the service as it was being run at a considerable loss. The decision to close down was announced on the 9th October, 1931. This announcement caused considerable agitation everywhere. It became however clear that new sources of revenue had to be found out if broadcasting was to continue in India. It was decided that customs receipts should be increased and it was also decided to rescind the

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order to close down the service. The duty on wireless receiving apparatus was fixed at 50 per cent. with effect from 1st April, 1932, by the Indian Tariff Amendment Act, 1932. On the 5th May, 1932 it was definitely decided to continue the Indian State Broadcasting Service under State management.

Since then there has been steady progress. With only 1,000 licensed listeners in 1937, it has risen to 230,025 in 1947. Each station is under a Station Director. A.I.R. has now at its command a most powerful battery of transmitters capable of covering at least four continents direct. Even in its present set-up, A.I.R. is Asia's biggest institution of its kind.

Revenue—The chief sources of revenue are customs duty on wireless apparatus, license fees and subscription and advertisement revenues from radio journals.

Organisation—The A. I. R. is a wing of the Department of Information and Broadcasting of the Government of India. Its head is the Director-General. All-India Radio is located at New Delhi. The Regional Stations are in charge of a Station Director.

News Service—The main activity of the News Services Division which is situated at Delhi is the purveying of accurate news of happenings in India and abroad, (1) for listeners in this country, (2) for Indians overseas, and (3) for listeners in certain neighbouring countries. News bulletins in the Home Services are broadcast in English and Indian languages. The total number of news bulletins per day is 33 with a duration of more than 14 hours daily. External Services broadcasts are conducted in 13 languages.

Broadcasting Stations—Delhi, Calcutta, Madras, Lucknow, Allahabad, Bombay, Truchi, Vijayawada, Baroda, Jullundur, Amritsar, Patna, Cutack, Gauhati, Nagpur, Shillong.

Broadcasting Stations in Indian States—Hyderabad, Travancore, Mysore, Jodhpur, Aurangabad, Jammu (Kashmir) and Srinagar.

Journals—Five Radio Programme Journals, *i.e., Indian Listener* (English), *Awaz* (Urdu), *Sarang* (Hindi), *Betar Jagat* (Bengali), *Vanoli* (Tamil) and *Navovani* (Gujerati), are published by the A.I.R. The circulation of the journals are follows—*Indian Listener* 23,000; *Sarang* 9,680; *Awaz* 3,626; *Betar Jagat* 16,000 and *Vanoli* 25,000.

Radio Licences—Broadcast receiver licences are issued at all head and sub-post offices at a fee of rupees ten per year. The traders in wireless apparatus have to take out special import licences.

Rural Broadcasts—In a country like India where vast majority of the people live in rural area, need for specialised programmes for rural area, need for specialised programmes for rural audiences cannot be overestimated. So the regional stations of A.I.R. are now devoting a major portion of evening hours to special programmes for villages. Free radio sets have been installed by provincial governments, such as Delhi and Madras for villagers. Calcutta and Bombay station broadcast special programmes for rural listeners.

Public Relations—All-India Radio establishes and maintains contact with Public Relations Officer at Headquarters and a Listener Research Officer at each station.

A.I.R's Eight-Year Plan—An eight-year plan which should form the first of the development in the Broadcasting in this country has been prepared and approved by the Development Board.

The main features of the Eight-Year Plan are as follows:

(1) Construction of Studio buildings at Madras and Calcutta as well as provision of additional office accommodation and studio facilities at the existing Broadcasting centres.

(2) Installation of eight 50 K.W. medium-wave transmitters for urban programmes; two each at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi.

(3) Installation of three 20 K.W. medium-wave transmitters for rural programmes; one each at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

(4) Installation of two high power and one 20 K.W. medium-wave transmitters at Allahabad.

(5) Installation of 20 K.W. medium-wave transmitters, one each at Nagpur, Vijyawada, Ahmedabad, Cuttack, Dharwar, Gauhati (or Shillong) and Calicut.

AIR Monitoring Service—A.I.R. monitoring service keeps a watch on transmissions from all the main broadcasting stations in the world, monitors news, commentaries and selected talks transmitted from these stations, in English, Indian languages and in some foreign langues in which A.I.R. is broadcasting. The service monitors broadcast in 12 different languages from as many as 24 different countries.

A.I.R. Staff Training School—On the technical side, trainees receive instruction on the physical properties of the medium as well as on the complicated chain of technical processes between the broadcaster and the listener. On the *programme side,* instruction consists of a series of lectures, demonstrations and practical exercises on every aspect of broadcasting. There is also another section to the school to train engineer apprentices. Here the training is of post-graduate standard and lasts for about six months.

Number of Broadcast Receiver Licences

	No. of Receiver Licences		*No. of Receiver Licences*
1927	3,598	1941	1,47,121
1930	7,719	1942	1,65,675
1933	10,872	1943	1,76,061
1936	37,797	1944	1,93,585
1937	50,650	1945	2,02,829
1939	92,772	1946	2,32,368
1940	1,19,417	1947	2,30,025
		1948 (*June*) ..	2,50,630

Total Number of Programme Transmission Hours per Week

April 1945 to March 1946	776·38
April 1946 to March 1947	742·12
April 1947 to March 1948	727·40

Revenue from Customs Duty

	(*Rs.*)
1939-40	20,58,040
1940-41	17,49,812
1941-42	21,63,896
1942-43	32,22,441
1943-44	11,49,313
1944-45	3,16,086
1945-46	10,45,318

Radio Receivers Imported

	No.	*Value Rs.*
1939-40	43,684	40,62,138
1940-41	38,866	35,31,956
1941-42	52,416	41,73,266
1942-43	18,930	19,70,027
1943-44	5,384	7,43,919
1944-45	5,982	7,04,197
1945-46	..	..
1946-47	1,07,111	1,69,61,790

Important Dates of Broadcasting in India

9124—First Radio Club in India in Madras on May 16, 1924.

1927—Bombay Station of the Indian Broadcasting Co. opened on July 23, and Calcutta opened on August, 1927.

1930—Indian Broadcasting Co. went into liquidation on March, 1930 and Broadcasting was placed under the direct control of the Government of India and its name was changed to "Indian State Broadcasting Service."

1939—Designation of the Indian State Broadcasting Service changed to "All-India Radio."

1939—In December, first foreign language service opened.

1943—Broadcasting House opened at Delhi.

1947—Broadcasting started at Patna (26th January) and Cuttack (27th January).

1948—Broadcasting started at Shillong and Gauhati (1st July).

1948—Broadcasting started at Srinagar (Kashmir) 1st July.

1948—Broadcasting started at Nagpur (16th July).

1948—Broadcasting started at Amritsar (February 16, 1948).

1948—Broadcastig started at Vijayawada (1st Dec. 1948).

1948—Baroda Radio Station taken over by Government of India (16th Dec. 1948).

1948—Allahabad Radio Station opened on 1st January, 1949.

RADIO STATIONS

	M. W.	S. W.
Delhi	338·6 metres 886 Kc/S	41·15 Metres 7,290 Kc/S (1) 31·15 Metres (2) 9,630 Kc/S
Bombay	244 Metres 1,231 Kc/S	31/41 Metres 9,550 Kc/S (1) 41·44 Metres 7,240 Kc/s (2)
Calcutta	370·4 Metres 810 Kc/S	41·61 Metres 7,210 Kc/S (1) 31·48 Metres 9,530 Kc/S (2)

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	M. W.	S. W.
Madras	211·3 Metres 1,420 Kc/S	41·32 Metres 7,260 Kc/S (1) 31·15 Metres (2) 9,590 Kc/S (2)
Jullundur	225 Metres 1,333 Kc/S	
Amritsar	229·9 Metres 1,305 Kc/S	
Nagpur	232·6 Metres 1,290 Kc/S	
Baroda	250 Metres 1,200 Kc/S	
Cuttack	221·4 Metres 1,355 Kc/S	
Shillong	205·5 Metres 1,460 Kc/S	
Gauhati	384·6 Metres 780 Kc/S	
Lucknow	293·5 Metres 1,022 Kc/S	
Patna	265·3 Metres 1,131 Kc/S	
Allahabad	389·6 Metres 770 Kc/S	
Truchi	3,958 Metres 758 Kc/S	
Vijayawada	357·1 Metres 840 Kc/S	

INDIANS ABROAD

STATUS OF INDIANS IN THE BR. COMMONWEALTH

Improvement in the status of Indians in the British Dominions, colonies and possessions has come about during the few months after India gainer her independence.

A conspicuous blot upon this happy picture is South Africa.

The position of Indians in Pakistan still remains to be defined.

There are 45,440 Indians in Australia. Those who are permanently settled in that country do not suffer from any disability in respect of the Commonwealth franchise. That is also true of Indians in the U. K., Canada and New Zealand. Domiciled Indians enjoy complete equality of citizenship with other classes of H.M.G.'s subjects.

Only in a few States of Australia some disabilities exist in the operation of the Widows' Pensions Act, the Family Endowments Act, and the Rural Workers' Accommodation Act. In Western Australia there are legal discriminations against Indians with respect to Crown land, mining and certain occupations and employments.

The Indian High Commissioner has already discussed the matter with the Prime Minister of Western Australia. These discussions have been most fruit. The Government of Western Australia have decided to take steps to remove the disabilities which attach to Indians in the State.

The only disability from which Indians suffered in Canada was in respect of municipal francise in the province of British Columbia. In 1947 an Act has been passed in the British Columbia Legislature giving Indians federal franchise.

STATUS IN ASIAN COUNTRIES

In some Asian countries of the Commonwealth, however, equality of citizenship is denied to Indians. The most notable example is Ceylon, where over 700,000 Indians live and labour. Discrimination continues to be exercised here in all important legislative and administrative measures by restricting benefits under them only to Ceylonese. Thus the right to obtain Crown lands, fishing rights and licences for the plying of omnibuses are not given to Indians. Few Indians can enter public service in Ceylon.

The conditions of citizens in Burma and Malaya under the new constitutions in the two countries have changed materially.

In Kenya and Fiji, Indians possess political and municipal franchises but have to win social and economic equality. In both countries they are not allowed to own or lease land in certain places. In Fiji, Indian children lack adequate educational facilities and are not allowed admission in European managed hotels, clubs or public play-grounds.

But Indians suffer from no disabilities in Hongkong, the Seychelles, British Somaliland, British North Borneo, Aden, Malta, Grenada, St. Lucia and Sierra Leone.

Nor is there much to complain about in British Guiana, Trinidad, Jamaica and Mauritius.

1. Outside the British Commonwealth

EUROPE	
European countries ..	1,000
NORTH AMERICA	
U.S.A. (1930)	5,850
Panama	1,000
SOUTH AMERICA	
Brazil (1931)	2,000
Dutch Guiana (1935) ..	40,777
Panama (1930)	85
AFRICA	
Belgian Congo	1,000
Egypt and Sudan ..	1,025
Abyssinia	2,000
Portuguese E. Africa (1931)	5,000
Madagascar (1931) ..	7,945
Reunion (1933)	1,533
ASIA	
French Indo-China (1931)	6,000
Dutch East Indies (1930)	27,633
Philippines	800
Siam (1931)	5,000
Japan (1946)	250
Bahrein (1933)	500
Muscat (1933)	441
China	*No. fig. available*
Afghanistan	*No cor. fig. available*
Persia	500
Iraq (1932)	2,596
Turkey	37
Palestine	60
Kashgar	400
Burma (1931) ..	1,017,825

2. Within British Commonwealth

Name of the country	*Year*	*Indian population*
DOMINIONS		
Australia ..	1933	4,544
Canada ..	1941	1,500
New Zealand	1942	1,200
South Africa ..	1946	2,82,525
S. Rhodesia ..	1941	2,547
Ceylon ..	1946,	7,32,258
COLONIES & PROTECTORATES		
Br. Malaya ..	1940	7,07,855
Hong Kong ..	1946	1,900
Mauritius ..	1946	2,71,636
Seychelles ..	1946	650
Gibralter ..	1946	41
Nigeria ..	1931	32
*Kenya ..	1946	84,581
*Uganda ..	1945	28,512
*Nyassaland ..	1946	3,100
*Zanzibar ..	1946	16,000
*Tanganyika ..	1946	38,500
Jamaica ..	1943	26,507
Trinidad ..	1945	1,92,445
Br. Guiana ..	1946	1,68,921
Fiji Islands ..	1946	1,30,000
*N. Rhodesia ..	1946	1,119
*S. A. Protectorates ..	1936	409
*S. W. Africa ..	1936	14
Maldives ..	1933	550
Br. N. Bornea	1931	1,298
Aden ..	1946	9,456
Br. Somaliland	1931	520
Malta ..	1933	41
Grenada ..	1932	5,000
St. Lucia ..	1921	2,189
Br. Honduras	1946	8,000
Siera Leone ..	1931	52
OTHER PARTS		
United Kingdom	1932	6,000

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* Includes all Asiatics

INDIA AND THE UNITED NATIONS

India's position in the U.N.—India's relation to the UN has changed materially since 1947. For during 1948 India has herself been placed on the dock like the Big powers of the world. Whether this has marked India as a Big power or not, the concern of the Big powers to manouvre forces for and against India shows that India has stood out as a problem to the power-mongering powers of the world. And this headache has been considerably increased after the glorious appeal for peace and a change in the attitude of the UN towards Asia made by the Prime Minister of India in his speech in the UN General Assembly the last Noverber, 1948.

India's election to most of the major International Organisations including the organs and subsidiaries of the UN, which came even before India had become free, has been further extended during the year 1948. Whether this recognition by the two power blocs has been intended as a sop to the rising world power or in consideration of the importance of the voice of India, India continues to stand erect out of proportion to her economic strength or the volume of her armaments. As Pandit Nehru broadcasted the voice of India, India has always shown to the UN that she is not afraid of the most powerful nations of the world armed with the atomic or any other more destructive power. India is not at the UN to toe the line of the powerful. She has her own ideas on world politics and tries without fail to bring her own individual judgment to bear on each and every problem that crops up on the world platform. What has troubled India during 1948 is the lack of the Big powers to show any concern for the peoples of the world. To her dismay India has discovered anew that they are interested more in keeping their stranglehold as of old on all the minor powers)and have not shown any inclination to work for any real solution of the rising problems. The UN dominated by European problem mania continues to shut its eyes to the problems of imperialism-ridden Asia and the undeveloped tracts of the world. Above all India refuses to get embroiled in power politics, and continues to press the UN to maintain its prestige by refusing to sign its death warrant.

India's two cases in U.N.—By the start of 1948 India already had two cases pending before the UN—one against South Africa for the latter's UN against two UN members, one against South Africa for the latter's rabid racial policy and the other against the sister dominion of Pakistan for her complicity in the invasion of Kashmir. As to South Africa, the UN refuses to heed the non-compliance with the UN directive by South Africa while out of the well of racialism has risen the bubble of a Dr. Malan who as the Prime Minister of South Africa promises to go further ahead in the plane of racial segregation. Although the General Assembly decided on Sept. 28, 1948 to retain the Indian complaint against South Africa on the agenda, the Paris session could not make time to discuss the issue. India has been sory to note the dilatory attitude of the UN.

As to the Kashmir raid, India has found the Security Council drinking deep in the well of power-politics and dealing with all relatively unimportant points of dispute between India and Pakistan. While overt proofs of Pakistan complicity in the raid were shown by India, the Security Council bandaged its eyes with Pakistan denial of such complicity. After playing

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for months with different draft resolutions, Security Council of U.N. approved on April 22, 1948, a joint resolution with a plan of sending a 5-member Commission to mediate between India and Pakistan on the question of Kashmir. By the last week of May the Council approved an extension of the authority of the Kashmir Commission to all matters of dispute between India and Pakistan. India protested against this extension in a letter to the Security Council on June 5. In reply to Pandit Nehru's query, Mr. Feris el Khoury, the then President of the Council intimated on June 15 that the Commission would "only gather information" in affairs other than the Jammu and Kashmir affairs. This, if anything, was beating a hasty retreat. The Commission itself realised the threat in the righteous indignation of India, when the Govt. of India decided to enquire of the Commission on what points the Commission proposed to have a discussion with the Government of India. The President of the Commission wrote on June 22 that the plan of the Commission was to deal precisely with Kashmir while investigating but reserving decision on other matters. Actually it is not known how far the Commission has investigated the other matters or whether any such investigation except possibly Junagadh was ever carried out. But as to the affairs of Junagadh and the non-jurisdictional principalities, India had already made it clear to the Security Council that the Government of India was prepared to go in for plebiscite in Junagadh any number of times the Security Council chose, inspite of the fact that the Junagadh situation was no threat to peace. Soon after the arrival of the Commission the Pakistan Government acknowledged the already patent fact of the presence of Pakistan troops fighting in the Kashmir front. Nothing daunted the Commission could go ahead with the plan of finding out a formula for securing a cease fire. That was possible because the Government of India wanted peace above all. In the meantime, however, an offensive was started on all fronts by the raiding forces, inspite of the undertaking given by both the Government of India and Government of Pakistan that nothing would be done or said to worsen the situation. India was therefore forced to launch an air and land attack for correcting the military situation. Even before that a cease fire formula had almost been finalised in the last week of August. It was announced on Sept. 6 by the Kashmir Commission that Government of India had accepted a cease fire formula providing for the withdrawal of Pakistan forces including all Pakistan nationals, withdrawal of all Indian forces in excess of those needed for the defence of the State (which would continue to be India's responsibility), interim administration under the present regime of the State, and after the return of normalcy a plebiscite conducted under a UN agency. Pakistan, however, attached two conditions for her eventual acceptance one being the recognition of the so-called 'Azad Pakistan Government', which it was clear had no existence separately from the Government of Pakistan. As the Kashmir Commission considered it outside their authority to accept any such conditions, it made some fruitless efforts to solve the crisis by further consultations before finally leaving for Geneva on Sept. 21. Reporting to the Security Council, the Commission announced on Nov. 24 that it was confronted by a new situation from that envisaged by the Security Council, *viz.*, the presence of Pakistan troops and Pakistan command over the so-called 'Azad Kashmir Forces.' It further made it clear that for any truce Pakistan must com-

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pletely evacuate Kashmir territory before any talk of a plebiscite and that any eventual plebiscite would be held under India, the interim administration being carried on by the State Government itself. While Pakistan had backed out of the 'cease fire' plan, the same has had later to be accepted after further talks with the President of the Kashmir Commission in the third week of December, 1948. That was how the cease fire became operative from the midnight of January 1, 1949.

Hyderabad Case —Another case against India at the UN was the Syria-sponsored complaint of Hyderabad. The formal complaint presented on Aug. 22 before the Security Council stated that "any continuation of the situation would endanger the maintenance of international peace and security". India declared that Hyderabad was always a part and parcel of India and did never have a shred of independence. Naturally the matter was a 'purely domestic issue' and no aggression charge could be laid at the door of India. The Anglo-American power bloc continued to pull the rope against India till after the 4-day military manoeuvre during Sept. 13-17, 1948 the Nizam's troops surrendered and the Nizam withdrew the complaint. The Security Council finally decided on Dec. 2, 1948—after several futile efforts of the Pakistan and Syrian delegates to revive the matter,—to declare the 'incident as closed.'

Indian efforts in the U.N. —In addition to these matters in which India herself was materially involved, India is policy-bound to press her case against imperialism and racial chauvinism as also for world co-operation for the development of the backward tracts. India has continued her stand in these maters during 1948. But to her dismay, India has found times without number that most of the countries from whom support is expected have failed to take stand on principle and self-respect. This has been most evident in the Colonial and Trusteeship Committee and the Committee for Non-self-governing Territories. In the latter India wanted to bring into being a permanent 16-nation committee (the present one being created for one year and for a two-week meeting as held during Sept. 1948) to examine administrative reports from colonial powers and submit recommendations to the General Assembly to which alone it shall be responsible, the influence of the colonial powers inside the committee being reduced by a new formula of composition. This simple proposal also failed to get through, not to speak of the Soviet resolution demanding increased UN supervision in the administration of the non-self-governing territories. At last a totally innocuous compromise resolution was adopted on Sept. 15, and it provided for a Committee similar to itself to meet next year to examine reports sent to the UN on social, economic and educational conditions of colonies.

In the Colonial and Trusteeship Committee again a Soviet proposal similar to that above failed to secure the support of the majority, India also not voting in favour. An Indian resolution was then accepted on October 18, by 29 votes with none against and 17 abstentions. The resolution called from the colonial powers information on the details of any change in the constitutional position and status of any former colony which the colonial powers decide to be self-governing. Against Anglo-French-Belgian-Australian opposition, the Committee also accepted on November 4 an Indo-Iraqi-Philippine-Cuban-Venezuelan resolution with U.S. amendment that no trust territories should ordinarily be combined with colonies for administrative unions (as in British Tanganyika, Kenya

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and Uganda) which would affect their separate status—politically, economically and socially. This resolution was, however, preliminary to the two Indian resolutions calling for the sending of an impartial Commission to S. W. Africa to find out whether the people are against U. N. trusteeship and in favour of incorporation by South Africa as announced by Dr. Malan's Government and the other for expressing regret that in U. N. directive to South Africa to place S. W. Africa under U. N. trusteeship has not been carried out. Due to the sit down strikes of The first instance of a case against India at the UN was the Syria-Pakistan and the Arab bloc, both the resolutions were rejected by 22 votes to 21 with 11 abstentions. But on November 26 the General Assembly passed two resolutions on S. W. Africa—one deciding by 44 to 2 votes with 5 abstentions that the territory must come under U. N. trusteeship and the other expressing regret by 32 to 14 votes with 5 abstentions that the previous directives have not been followed by South Africa.

In the ECAFE conferences at Ootacamund and again at Lapstone, India called for help from the industrialised countries for the economic development of Asia. But all reports including a 'master plan' for 5-year development of industry and agriculture had to be shelved owing to lack of funds either from US or the International Monetary Bank. The US had already wanted at Ooty favourable conditions for any US help. At Lapstone, India has been forced to condemn with the eventual support of Ceylon and the USSR the trade barriers in countries which import goods from Asia and the Far East,—specially the USA. At both these conferences India vigorously supported the entry of Indonesia into the Commission with an associate membership. Held up at Ooty, Indonesia was finally admitted into membership at Lapstone by 8 votes to 2 with 3 abstentions.

Another Asian affair in which India has taken great interest is the problem of Korea. Sliced between two warring ideologically apart big powers, Korea had been in a gradually worsening position when the Korean Commission was sent to enquire and report on the state of affairs there. And in his interim report to the Interim Committee of the General Assembly on January 19, 1948, Mr. K. P. S. Menon, the Chairman, disclosed that while there was a great hankering after immediate independence and immediate unification in the US zone and while the country was really fit for independence, there was no freedom in the country under the US administration, no freedom even for holding a free election. In its final report, however, the Commission declared on April 28 that elections could anyway be held. After the elections of May 10, 1948, the Commission accepted the elections as valid and called for the unifications of the two zones, although the Commission was not allowed to go into the affairs of the Soviet zone of N. Korea. India's stand in this affair is presumably the outcome of the desire to see the Asian countries managing their own affairs whatever the ideology of the administration. If one is free to comment on this, however, in her hurry India has helped into the jockeying position a party which cannot be said to have faith in democracy and political liberty, not to speak of economic freedom.

As a speaker on behalf of the oppressed peoples of Asia and the backward countries of the world, India has fought for their rights in the

ITO, the ILO, the FAO and the Economic and Social Council. While pressing for the rapid industrialisation of Asia and the Far East in the ESC, India demanded of the ITO the right of the hitherto undeveloped countries to protect their growing industries from the competition of their superior rivals. In the ILO again India proposed the establishment of an Asian Federation of Labour, to deal with the peculiar problems of Asian labour. Speaking at the FAO, India protested against ill-founded idea of the surplus countries "of restriction of production under the impression of over-supply" while millions in Asia and elsewhere were starving and under-fed. As the negotiated price-level fixed for food-stuffs is certainly inflated, India stood in association with the importing countries for a reduction of food prices.

Over at the Freedom of Information Conference held in April at Geneva, India stood for facts without prejudice, colour or malicious contents to facilitate the solution of human problems through free interchange of information,—journalists always counteracting the spread of false or distorted reports, and each Government's duty being to encourage the promotion of one or more non-official organisation for the collection and dissemination of news.

India also took a great part in the drafting of the Bill of Human Rights. On the disputed Soviet-Pakistan proposal for outlawing "cultural genocide," India took a strong stand in the opposition and declared that the underlying principle has been amply covered in the Bill of Human Rights and the draft of the proposed International Treaty on Genocide which has eventually been adopted by the General Assembly.

As the Chairman of the 11-man Committee for the solution of the dealock in the Atomic Energy Commission, the Indian representative pleaded for the resumption of the work of the Commission and for the preparation and submission to the Security Council as early as possible a draft treaty or convention incorporating the ultimate proposals. It is at India's instance that the General Assembly endorsed the continuation of the work of the Atomic Energy Commission and appointed a committee for securing Soviet agreement and thereby an unanimity on this all-important problem.

Apart from the problem of disarmament and atomic control, India has tried times without number to have US-Soviet unanimity. Failing this India has been forced to judge the merits of the case in each instance and take a stand accordingly. On the question of the utility of the Interim Committee of the General Assembly, for example, India had already made it clear on July 28 that the 'continuance of such a body is not desirable.' So on November 17 India proposed in the Minor Political Committee that in the place of the Little Assembly, 'ad hoc' committees would serve a better purpose. When the question of the retention of the Little Assembly was voted in the General Assembly on December 3, India therefore abstained.

India's conscience has, however, been stirred by the renewal of the Dutch armed operation in Indonesia on December 19 and the Anglo-US attitude to it like that of under-writers. India made it clear before the emergency session of the Security Council that India is not going to stand it. That India will not mince matters and would not hesitate to declare the 'Munroe doctrine' for Asia has been amply made obvious to the world by India's invitation to all the Asian countries including Australia and New Zealand to confer on the Indonesian situation, pending the decision of the Security Council.

INDIAN EVENTS, 1948

A. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

1. **Diplomatic Exchanges**—Government of India announced on February 9 the mutual decision to make diplomatic exchange with Switzerland at Legation level. Similar announcements were made on diplomatic exchange at Legation level on April 20 with Transjordan, on June 12 with the Vatican, on June 18 with Sweden on July 1, with Ethiopia and on November 23 with Hungary. On March 25 the plan of exchange of Embassies between India and Italy in near future was announced.

2. **Air Agreements** –On May 3 an Indo-Swedish Air Pact for bilateral air traffic was signed while on October 6 the Indo-Ceylonese Bilateral Air Agreement was concluded.

3. **Indo-Swiss Treaty** -The Indo-Swiss Treaty of unalterable friendship and perpetual peace was signed on August 14. Among other things the treaty provided for mutual most-favoured-nation-treatment in respect of trades and professions. Although some general commercial clauses were included in the treaty, provision has been made to amplify these in a separate agreement in future.

The treaty which is the first of its kind entered into by the Indian Dominion establishes "perpetual peace and unalterable friendship" between the two countries.

4. **Breakdown of Indo-Ceylonese talks on Indians in Ceylon** —Government of India announced on October 9 that a deadlock has been reached in the one-year old negotiations between the two countries. Disagreement arose out of the Ceylonese decision to differentiate between 'citizens by descent' and 'citizens by registration' as contained in the Ceylon Citizenship Act and the Ceylon Indian Citizenship Bill by implication. The Nehru-Senanayake letters on Indians in Ceylon were released on November 26. It may be mentioned in this connection that the Indian Citizenship Bill provides for acquisition of citizenship by registration by the unmarried Indian residents for 10 years prior to January, 1946 and married residents for 7 years before the same date.

5. **Commonwealth Premiers' Conference** –Pandit Nehru, the Prime Minister of India joined this conference on the economic and political problems of the commonwealth countries which started on October 11. It was at this conference that the 'dual citizenship' formula for the commonwealth countries is said to have been decided finally.

6. **Indo-French Agreement on the future of French India**–As early as April 15 it was announced that the future of the French possessions in India was to be determined by a free plebiscite. The final form of the Indo-French agreement was announced on July 1.

7. **Reciprocal Tariff and Trade Agreement**–The protocol of the reciprocal concessions in tariff and trade, finally agreed to in October, 1947 under the auspices of the ITA of the UN, was signed by India at New

York on June 8, 1948. The main commodities in respect of which India has given tariff concessions are: milk and milk products, canned food, fruits and vegetables, specified chemicals, specified coal-tar dyes, specified classes of machinery, motor vehicles (reduction of preference only), radio sets, typewriters, opticals, raw wool textile, fertilisers and domestic refrigerators.

The principal commodities in respect of which India has received tariff concessions are: jute and jute products, cotton manufactures, cashewnuts, mica, shellac, coir matting, sport goods, carpets, spices and condiments, essential oils, tea and tobacco.

8. **Indian Food Agreements outside IEFC**—The first of these is the Indo-Russian food agreement of July 12 for 50,000 tons of Russian wheat in exchange of Indian tea. The other such barter agreement was that with Argentina dated October 8 for 385,000 tons of Argentine wheat in exchange of jute to reach by the end of March, 1949.

9. **Indo-Pakistan Relations**—The major agreements between India and Pakistan may be said to have been the following:

(1) The Indo-Pak Agreement on Minorities of April 19. (2) The Indo-Pak Economic (essential commodities supply) Agreement of May 26, further extended and elucidated in many later agreements. (3) The Indo-Pak Air Agreement of June 23. (4) The Indo-Pak Agreement on Evacuee Property of August 25. (5) The Indo-Pak Agreement on Import and Export Control of September 28. (6) The Indo-Pak Pact of December 14 for the furtherance and better elucidation of all the agreements arrived at throughout the year.

Besides the above, India and Pakistan had to seek many other common grounds on points arising out of the partition of India. Of these mention may be made of the currency agreement of March 31, the agreements of April 18 and July 21 on water supply to W. Punjab from upper Bari Doab and Dipalpur canals, the Assam and Bengal Separation Council agreements of June 20 and June 16.

Mention must also be made in this connection of the Government of India's decision of July 14 to introduce permit system for the entry of Pakistan nationals from W. Pakistan to India, in view of the increasing treks back by Muslim evacuees from India. Due to this one-sided movement of population, the Indian refugees from the W. Pakistan areas not finding it possible to move back to their previous territories, the pressure on India's low foodstocks Government of India promulgated on July 21 an Ordinance controlling the entry into India from W. Pakistan. After this Pakistan similarly promulgated an order on September 7 to stop any entry into W. Pakistan from India without permits.

10. **Enforcement of Passport Regulations on Burmese Nationals**—Indians in Burma having been brought within the ambit of the Foreigners Act of Burma after the change in the status of Burma and in view of the need of some control over the movement from one country to another, Government of India decided on December 4, 1948 that from January 1, 1949 Burmese nationals should be subject to the provisions of the Indian Passport Rules 1921, and the Registration of Foreigners Rules 1939. By this order all Burmese nationals have been asked to register within February 28, 1949.

B. PUBLIC FINANCE

1. **Budget 1948-49—Feb. 28**—Special features of proposals: Business Profits Tax rate was lowered from 16$^{2}/_{3}$% to 10% with abatement for Rs. 2 lakhs of 6% of capital whichever is larger; super-tax limit raised to Rs. 3½ lakhs for both earned and unearned income; rate of Corporation Tax raised from As. 2 to As. 3 with 1 anna rebate in case of companies distributing dividends in India; 25½ avalorem duty on mill-made cloth with exemption in case of handloom cloth that is exported, export duty from cotton yarn also being withdrawn; excise duty on betel nuts withdrawn; export duty of Rs. 80/- per ton on oil-seeds, Rs. 200/- on vegetable oil and Rs. 20/- per ton on manganese imposed; import duty on motor cars raised from 45% to 50%; excise duty on tea and coffee increased from As. 2 to As. 4 per lb.; excise duty increased by 50% in case of vegetable products (*i.e.,* Rs. 7½ proposed) and on tyres; excise duty of 25% levied on cigarettes; tobacco duty raised from As. 9 to As. 12 on certain varieties and from As. 3 to As. 4 per lb. on cheaper varieties; trunk telephone surcharges raised from 40% to 60% to be amalgamated with basic rates; super-tax on undistributed profits lowered to As. 4 from As. 5 in all cases; Income Tax on companies with of Rs. 25,000 and below reduced to half the usual rates; donations upto 5% of taxable income for charities by companies exempted, the exemption in case of individuals being limited to 10% upto a maximum of Rs. 2½ lakhs; reduction of excise duty on matches in the last budget cancelled, minimum duty being fixed at Rs. 2/8/- per gross on boxes containing 50 matches; postal registration fees raised from As. 3 to As. 4; advance payment of the Corporation tax; total effect Rs. 1·09 crores of deficit expected. (Total uncovered debt was estimated to be Rs. 864 crores).

Select Committee Report and final budget—March 22—Taxable minimum was raised from Rs. 2,500 to Rs. 3,00; export duty on manganese ore changed into an *ad valorem* duty of 25%; export duty on vegetable oils fixed at Rs. 160 per ton in place of the proposed Rs. 200 per ton; excise duty on vegetable oils modified to one anna per lb. in effect; increase of excise duty on tea and coffee limited to 50% in place of 100%; municipal taxes not to be deducted from taxable income; rebate for donations for charities to be limited to half the amount of taxable income and that to be allowed only in respect of donations made on or after April 1; rate of income tax on small companies lowered to As. 2½ in the rupee; rebate of half anna in the case of small companies and one anna for others on the amount of undistributed profits "ploughed back into capital". Total and final effect of additional loss of Rs. 1·04 crores of revenue raises the deficit expected to Rs. 2·13 crores (by drawing upon the railway surplus to the extent of Rs. 4·5 crores).

2. **Sterling Balances Agreements**—On Mar, 2 Government of India announced an extension of the previous year's agreement upto June 30, 1948, whereby a further amount of £18 million (or Rs. 24 crores) was to be transferred to India, the total amount in account No. 1 (*i.e.,* muliterally convertible) being limited to £10 millions (or Rs. 13·33 crores).

Another agreement covering the period upto July 30, 1951 was signed in London on July 9, 1948 and published on July 15. *(For details see ante.)*

3. **Government efforts towards disinflation and lowering of the price-structure**—Government of India's decontrol policy announced in Nov. 1947 proved a total failure in respect of both food-grains and textiles. With a view to checking further rise in prices, and if possible bringing down the prices, and all consumer goods, Government of India announced on Jan. 22, and on July 3, 1948 doses of relaxation of import control from soft currency areas, lifting most of the control on Sept. 2. On the other side Government of India continued the control on cement, steel and paper prices; steel price being raised by 30% on Jan. 26, paper price being raised on May 2 by about Rs. 1/½/- per lb. and a considerable increase in price being allowed in case of cement. On Aug. 21, Government of India imposed control on the prices of raw cotton, fixing floor and ceiling prices for the Indian varieties of 1948-49 crop. Even before that, on consideration of the report of the Tariff Board enquiry into cloth prices, Government of India freezed all the stocks of the 400 textile mills on July 30. On the same day was announced the policy of reimposition of control over both distribution and prices, the sale of unstamped cloth being allowed up to Oct. 31, 1948. After a two day meeting of the Textile Advisory Board which decided on the maximum production of durable cloth, Dr. Mookherjee, the Minister for Industries and Supplies, detailed on Sept. 25 the Government plan to enforce the decision. Similarly while announcing the Government of India policy of gradual re-imposition of control on food-grains by Oct. 1949, the Food Minister Mr. Daulatram detailed the plan for monopoly procurement at Government-approved prices and enforcement of rationing. This was in fact a going back upon the previous policy of gradual decontrol.

Both the decisions on the re-imposition of control were however, arrived at after considering the recommendation of the Economists' Conference and the Industrialists' Conference held at the instance of the Govt. of India from Aug. 18-22 and 29-30 respectively. On Oct. 4 the Govt. of India announced four broad principles of its anti-inflationary policy and some anti-inflationary measures. The Government decided (1) to lower Government expenditure, increase its revenue, (2) check further rise in prices and cost of living, (3) to secure, in the shortest possible time, progressive reduction of prices to reasonable levels and the supply of an increasing volume of goods and services and (4) to try, wherever possible, to curtail the purchasing power in the hands of the community and prevent any addition thereto. The seven lines of Government attack on inflation were—(1) reduction of the budgetary gap and provision for surplus budgets from the next year, (the Centre withholding all monetary aids to the provinces for the abolition of zemindary and the undertaking of the prohibition policy), (2) deferring all non-productive development schemes, (3) expediting the Estate Duty Bill, (4) limitation of dividends. (5) postponement of the repayment of the Excess Profit Tax deposits and refundable Excess Profit Tax for 3 years or more except for financing purchases of capital goods, (6) intensification of small savings campaign, and (7) reduction in the price of sugar, and better distribution of kerosine, iron and steel, cement and other essential commodities. Soon the Government of India started giving effect to these policies.

On Oct. 9, Government of India promulgated an ordinance to stop refund of Excess Profit Tax for 3 years except for purchase of capital

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equipment. On Oct. 11 was announced a scheme to issue from Oct. 15 treasury deposit receipts to banks on their own or their constituents' behalf. These deposit receipts, to be on tap in denominations of Rs. 25,000 and multiples thereof, are to be issued at par for periods of 6, 9 and 12 months, bearings interest at 1%, 1¼% and 1½% per annum respectively repayable ordinarily at maturity; provided, however, that in the event of emergency request of the holder, if the Reserve Bank of India is satisfied with the urgency, they are repayable without any interest payment before maturity. On Oct. 15 the Government of India decided to revive the 1943 scheme of receiving deposits against current and future tax-liabilities with an interest at 2% from the date of deposit to the date of assessed demand on the amount adjusted against demand, the excess amount being carried forward. Detailing some concessions to industry to stimulate production, the Government of India announced on Oct. 22 the policy of (1) liberalising the allowance of depreciation on new plant, building and machinery for income-tax purposes commencing from the year 1948-49, (2) granting as additional depreciation and difference after a period of five years in the price of machinery owing to a fall from the original cost, (3) exempting from income-tax for a period of five years any profits upto 6% per annum in the case of new industrial undertakings of specified categories which commence production in India within a period of 3 years (or more if found justifiable), (4) granting relief in respect of customs duty on raw materials, plant and machinery to the extent to which it can be done without injury, to India manufacturers of similar goods. Although the question of steel prices could not be settled prior to the Tariff Board recommendations, Government of India had already decided by Oct. 18 that all imported steel (Government import or private import) would be pooled and sold at an equalised price, *i.e.,* at the price at which indigenous steel is sold. Importers are to be paid the difference between the imported price and the equalised price from an Equalisation Fund. In the case of import of steel by genuine consumers (*i.e.,* when steel is not for re-sale), price is not to be so equalised. Next by an ordinance dated Oct. 29, Government of India restricted the distribution of dividends by companies to the average annual amount of cash distribution within two years upto March, 1948 or 6% of the paid-up capital, whichever is higher. As to the development plans, decision is known to have been arrived at regarding their priorities in the Finance Ministers' Conference held in Oct. 30 and 31. While accepting the Tariff Board recommendation for an 80% *ad valorem* duty on Motor Vehicles batteries from the U.K., Government of India on Nov. 4 urged consumers not to buy the Indian product unless it costs 20% less than the imported product. On Nov. 9 the Government of India announced the imposition of heavier import duties on specified luxury goods, a reduction of export duty on cotton textiles from 25% *ad valorem* to 10% and the abolition of export duty on castor oil and seeds—all to stimulate trade and industry along desirable channels. For securing a sharp reduction of available currency in public hands, the Government of India amended the Taxation on Income (Investigation Commission) Act 1947 on Nov. 19 in order to give the Commission comprehensive powers, (1) to call public accounts from Banks, (2) to make settlements with parties desirous to do so, (3) to allow assessees to compound all their cases with the Government and come before the Commission with proposals for settlement and (4) for enforcing some procedural clarity. Before the end of the year, the Government of India promulgated on Dec. 31, an ordinance enabling income-tax officers to make provisional assessment on any person who has sent his return of income and to collect from him immediately the tax on the admitted income without prejudice to normal procedure.

On November 28 the Government of India exempted from customs duty all insecticides and chemicals for controlling pests of crops. By December 1 the Government of India Economy Committee submitted to the Finance Ministry its reports on the possible measures of economy in the ministries of External Affairs, Education, Health, Labour and Transport. And by Dec. 4 the Cabinet Economy Committee decided to cut all centre-aided provincial development plans as well as central plans by $33^{1}/_{3}\%$ (thereby saving Rs. 35 to 40 cr.) during the financial year 1948-49, the maximum of central grants being limited to Rs. 41½ cr. this year and to Rs. 53½ cr. next year. Government of India announced on Dec. 2, the decision to accept the Provincial Governments' recommendation to stabilise the sugar price at about Rs. 28/8/- per ton *ex*-factory and between As. 12 and As. 13 retail, without making any effort to introduce rationing and control.

4. **Banking Control Ordinance**—This ordinance promulgated on Sept. 18 to incorporate some emergency provisions for the safeguarding the interests of the depositors as are contained in the Banking Companies Bill which was then pending before the Dominion Legislature. This urgent measure was taken to offset the collapse of confidence which led to run in several banks in Calcutta.

5. **Statistical Census of Foreign Investments in India**—In order to fulfil an obligation to provide a statement of India's balance of payments to the International Monetary Fund, The Reserve Bank of India, under a notification of the Finance Ministry, called on Oct. 2 for information, as on June 30, 1948, on certain foreign liabilities and assets of individuals and institutions in the Dominion of India and the States acceding to it. The notification imposed legal obligation on the respective parties to furnish the required returns to the Reserve Bank of India before Dec. 31, 1948.

6. **Nationalisation of the Reserve Bank of India**—In accordance with the Reserve Bank Nationalisation Act, 1948, passed by the Dominion Legislature on Sept. 2, the Reserve Bank of India has been nationalised as from Jan. 1, 1949. The share-holders of this 14-year old institution are to be paid at Rs. 118-10-0 per 100 rupee share in 3% Government Stock, redeemable in 1970-75. The bonds being in multiples Rs. 100, anything left over are to be paid in cash along with the dividend of 4% for the half year from July 1 to Dec. 31, 1948.

7. **Setting up of the Industrial and Rehabilitation Finance Corporations**—On June 15, 1948, the Government of India set up the Industrial Finance Corporation in accordance with the Act passed in 1948. According to the Act the Corporation with a share capital of Rs. 10 cr. divided into 20,000 fully paid up shares of Rs. 5,000, subscribed by the Government, Co-operative Banks and other institutions is to help 'public limited com-

panies' (and not 'industrial concerns'). The Corporation has been empowered to issue bonds and debentures upto 5 times the share-capital and is to be a taxable institution.

8. **Damodar Valley Corporation**—In accordance with the Damodar Valley Corporation Act, 1948, which was passed by the Dominion Legislature on Feb. 18 after consultation the Government of India with the Provincial Governments of Bengal and Bihar, the Corporation was set up on July 6 in order to take up the Rs. 55 cr. Damodar Valley project.

9. **Resrve Bank**—Hyderabad: Under Sec .13 of Foreign Exchange Regulations Act 1947, the Reserve Bank of India banned on Feb. 18, the export of any of the Reserve Bank securities without licence. On July 1 the Reserve Bank of India banned the transfer of Indian securities held by the Nizam of Hyderabad, in accordance with a Government of India ordinance of that date. Under instructions of the Reserve Bank of India, the Imperial Bank of India suspended its agency arrangements with the Hyderabad State Bank, until further orders on and from July 6. On July 11, the Reserve Bank of India blocked all Hyderabad funds and all payments to the Nizam's subjects, provision being made for the Indian citizens to get legal discharge of debts to Hyderabad by paying into the blocked account. All these suspension orders were cancelled soon after the successful completion of the 'police action' by the Indian Army. When after that the Government of Pakistan refused to return the Indian securities worth Rs. 20 crore to the Nizam, the Reserve Bank of India was empowered by the Government of India by the promulgation of an ordinance on Dec. 31, 1948 to issue duplicate securities to the Nizam.

10. **Industrial Policy of the Government of India**—as declared on April 6, 1948: Dividing industries into 3 spheres, Government of India announced its policy with regard to each. The first category in which falls arms ammunition, production and control of atomic energy and railway transport shall be the sector of 'State monopoly' exclusively under the control of the Central Government. In the second sector of industries with 'State Control undertakings shall be allowed to develop for a period of ten years after which the position is to be reviewed. In this category, where the Government shall be exclusively responsible for the establishment of new undertakings falls some six industries like coal, iron and steel, air-craft manufacture, ship-building, manufacture of telephone, telegraph and wireless apparatus including radio-receiving sets, and mineral oils. The rest of the industrial field, which constitutes the third category of 'State participation' falls some 18 industries including salt, automobiles and tractors, heavy chemicals, fertilisers and pharmaceutical and drugs, cotton and woollen textiles, cement, sugar, paper and newsprint, air and sea transport and minerals. In this sector which will be open to private enterprise, both individual and co-operative, the State will progressively participate.

11. **Move against tax-evasion**—On Feb. 7, 1948 the Government of India promulgated an ordinance restricting transfer of property without prior certification by taxation authorities that all taxes due from the owners of such properties have been fully paid up and cleared. This ordinance was meant further to check transfer of properties by refugees going out of India at uneconomic prices.

C. INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION AND POLITICAL EVENTS OF IMPORTANCE

Jan. 6—Sardar Patel, the Home Minister's appeal to the people to shun communal politics and appeal to the Hindu Mahasabha and RSS to join Congress.

Jan. 13—Mahatma Gandhi starts his fast for indefinite period in his mission to rebuild communal amity. Delhi disturbances stop and Government of India order Reserve Bank of India on Jan. 16 to transfer Rs. 55 cr. to Pakistan. Gandhiji breaks his fast on Jan. 17 after solemn undertakings being given him by the party leaders on the conditions he had laid down for the breaking of his 120-hour fast.

Jnn. 15—Resignation of Dr. P. C. Ghosh's ministry in West Bengal and the formation of new ministry by Dr. B. C. Roy.

Jan. 20—Crude bomb explodes in Gandhiji's prayer meeting—Gandhiji's narrow escape. "Treat the young suspects with compassion", says Mahatma Gandhi.

Jan. 21—Lord Mountbatten's term as Governor-General extended.

Jan. 30—*Mahatma Gandhi assassinated.* India in mourning for 13 days.

Feb. 2—Government of India Gazette Extraordinary: no organisation preaching violence and communal hatred to be tolerated; no private armies would be permitted.

Feb. 4—RSS declared unlawful organisation throughout India: country-wide public fury against Hindu Mahasabha and RSS and arrest of the members of these organisations throughout the country.

Feb. 7—Maharaja of Alwar and his Premier N. B. Khare ordered by Government of India to keep out of the State till enquiries into alleged RSS activities are fully investigated. Similarly Government of India takes over the administration of Bharatpur State temporarily for alleged complicity in RSS activities. The Maharajas are finally exonerated on April 28.

Feb. 8—Government of India declares Muslim League National Guards and the Khaksar organisation unlawful on account of their cult of violence and hatred.

Feb. 12—Ashes of Mahatma Gandhi were immersed at Allahabad and other important places of India.

Feb. 15—A. I. Hindu Mahasabha Working Committtee decides suspension of political activity.

Feb. 21—A. I. Congress Committee passes the resolution on India as a secular and democratic State, and adopts new constitution for Congress whereby no party group can remain within the Congress, as hitherto.

Feb. 28—Last British troops to leave Dominion of India—the 1st Battalion Somerset Light Infatry—sailed from Bombay.

Feb. 29—Muslim League Party in Constituent Assembly dissolves itself at a meeting of 14 out of the 27 members, 4 members declaring decision *ultra vires.*

Mar. 11—Mr. C. H. Bhaba, the Commerce Minister, submits resignation but is asked to carry on till the end of the budget session of Parliament.

Mar. 20—The Socialist Party of India at Nasik decided to disociate itself completely from Congress (of which it was technically a group) to work in future as a fully-fledged independent party and directed all party members to resign their membership from the Congress.

Mar. 30—Nehru's warning to Government employees in Calcutta against strike.

Apr. 5—Assam High Court, under Chief Justice Lodge, inaugurated.

Apr. 25—A.I. States' Peoples' onference decides merger with Congress.

Apr. 26—At AICC session in Bombay Nehru warns Hyderabad—war of accession only alternatives for Hyderabad.

May 3—Sree C. Rajagopalachari appointed Governor-General after Mountbatten who relinquishes post on June 21.

May 8—Special Tribunal set up in Delhi for Godse trial; trial opens at Red Fort on May 27.

May 16—I.N.T.U.C. first session inaugurated; Government of India recognises it on May 31 as the most representative labour organisation.

June 7—Mr. Mohanlal Saxena becomes Minister of State for Relief and Rehabilitation, Mr. K. C. Neogy retains Commerce portfolio.

June 11—Dr. K. N. Katju to become Governor of West Bengal from June 21 and Mr. Asaf Ali to be the Governor of Orissa.

June 16—Government of India appoints a Commission to enquire into and report on the creation of 4 new provinces on linguistic basis in Madras and Bombay. The Commission's unanimous report submitted on Dec. 13 recommends that such provinces should not be formed at present that have no economic strength to do anything more than policing.

July 1—Gauhati and Shillong stations of A.I.R. opened. Bombay police fire striking sweepers.

June 20—India warns Britain, Australia and Canada for Sydney Cotton's gun running into Hyderabad.

June 26—Orissa High Court under Chief Justice Bira Kishote Ray inaugurated.

July 17—The Government of India announced that discrimination against women in the matter of employment in public services could no longer be maintained, and that it had thereforee been decided that women would in future be eligible for appointment for any public service on the same basis of merit and suitability as men.

Aug. 16—Sri Shanmukham Chetty resigns for his indiscretion; Dr. J. Matthai takes over Finance Ministry and Mr. Ayyengar (Minister without portfolio) takes over Railway and Transport on Sept. 24.

Aug. 31—Government of India urges the gradual replacement of English by the provincial or state language in the Universities and Provincial Governments.

Sept. 21—Mr. Mehr Chand Mahajan and Mr. Bijon Kumar Mukherjee, Judges respectively of the East Punjab and the Calcutta High Courts. appointed Judges of the Federal Court.

Sept. 28—Mr. K. Santhanam appointed Minister of State to assist Minister for Railways and Transport and Mr. Khurshed Lal appointed Dy. Minister to assist Minister for Communications from Oct. 1.

Oct. 23—Governor General assumes new power under rule framed under Sec. 241 of the Government of India Act 1935 for the compulsory retirement of officials whose retention in service is prejudicial to national security.

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Nov. 4—The Indian Constituent Assembly opens for the adoption of the new Constitution of India in its final form.

Nov. 14—Government of India announces that the ban on the RSS shall not be withdrawn. RSS workers are arrested throughout India in the first and second weeks of December for launching satyagraha in protest against the decision to retain the ban.

Dec. 1—Vijayawada station of the A.I.R. opened.

Dec. 4—Mr. R. R. Diwakar becomes Minister of State for Information and Broadcasting and Mr. B. V. Keskar becomes Dy. Minister for External Affairs and Commonwealth Relations.

Dec. 14—Mr. Satya Narain Sinha becomes Minister of State attached to the Prime Minister's department.

D. DISTURBANCES

1. **Communal disturbances**.—The few cases of communal disturbances that occurred in India during the year may be pertinently described partly as the carry over from the previous years but mostly due to the ill-feelings borne by the refugees from Pakistan, and whose mistaken notions of revenge were found to be very good bases by the RSSS. Barring the Delhi disturbances in January and the Agra disturbances during third week of August, only minor clashes occurred throughout the country. Although the Godhra disturbances of the last week of March took a huge toll in the matter of destruction of property, it was fire which had done it, and fire chose not between the communities. Communal rioting endeavoured twice to raise its venomous head in Bombay, once during the first week of July and once in the last week of August. But the Government of Bombay had been alert enough to scotch it and had even found out that these disturbances had mostly been begun by agents of the communal oligarchy in Hyderabad. Besides a few rounds also came to be fought at Allahabad and Moradabad in the third week of January, at Madura in the first week of September, and at Calcutta on the 13th of October. But none of these could gather momentum due to popular will against any disturbances.

DIRECTORY SECTION

BRITISH GOVERNOR-GENERALS & SECRETARIES

1874—1947

SECRETARIES OF STATES FOR INDIA

Lord Stanley	1858
Sir Charles Wood	1859
Earl de Gray & Ripon	1860
Viscount Cranborne	1866
Sir S. Nortcote	1867
Duke of Argyl	1868
Sir R. A. Cross	1886
Earl of Kimberley	1892
H. H. Fowler	1894
Lord George Hamilton	1895
Sir John Brodrick	1903
John Morley	1905
Earl of Crew	1910
Viscount Morley	1911
Earl of Crew	1911
Austen Chamberlain	1915
E. S. Montague	1917
Marquess of Salisbury	1874
G. Hardy	1878
Marquess of Hartington	1880
Earl of Kimberley	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885
Earl of Kimberley	1886
Viscount Peel	1922
Sir S. Oliver	1924
Earl of Birkenhead	1924
Viscount Peel	1928
W. Wedgwood Benn	1929
Sir S. Hoare	1931
Marquis of Zetland	1935
L. S. Amery	1940
Lord Pethick-Lawrence	1945
Lord Listowell	1947

GOVERNOR-GENERALS & VICEROYS

Governor-Generals of Bengal	
Warren Hastings	1774
Sir John Macpherson	1785
Earl Cornwallis	1786
Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth)	1793
Sir Alfred Clarke	1798
Lord Wellesley	1798
Lord Cornwallis (2nd time)	1805
Sir George Barlow	1805
Governor-Generals of India	
Earl of Minto I	1807
Lord Hastings (Earl of Moria)	1813
John Adam	1823
Earl of Amherst	1823
W. B. Bayley	1828
Lord W. Cavandish-Bentinck	1828
Lord W. Cavandish-Bentinck (2nd time)	1833
Sir Charles Metcalfe	1835
Lord Auckland	1836
Lord Ellenborough	1842
Sir Henry Hardinge	1844
Earl of Dalhousie	1848
Lord Canning	1856
Lord Canning	1858
Earl of Elgin II	1862
*Sir Robert Napier	1863
*Sir William Denison	1863
Sir John Lawrence	1864
Earl of Mayo	1869
*John Strachey	1872
*Lord Napier	1872
Lord Northbrook	1872
Earl of Lytton	1876
Lord Ripon	1880
Earl of Dufferin	1884
Lord Lansdowne	1888
Earl of Elgin II	1894
Lord Curzon	1899
*Lord Amphthill	1904
Lord Curzon	1904
Earl of Minto II	1905
Lord Hardinge	1910
Lord Chelmsford	1916
Lord Reading	1921
*Earl of Lytton	1925
Lord Irwin	1926
*Viscount Goschen	1929
Earl of Willingdon	1931
*Sir George Stanley	1934
Marquess Linlithgow	1936
Viscount Wavell	1943
Lord Louis Mountbatten	1947

*Officiating.

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GOVERNOR-GENERALS OF INDIAN UNION

Lord Louis Mountbatten ..	1947
C. Rajagopalachari ..	1948

PROVINCIAL GOVERNORS OF INDIAN UNION

West Bengal

C. Rajagopalachari ..	1947
Sir B. L. Mitter (*Offg.*) ..	1947
Dr. K. N. Katju ..	1948

Madras

Sir Archibald Edward Nye	1947
Maharaja of Bhavnagar ..	1948

Assam

Sir Akbar Hydari	1947
F. R. Lodge (*Offg.*) ..	1948
Sri Prakasa	1949

East Punjab

Sir C. Trivedi	1947

Bihar

Jairamdas Daulatram ..	1947
M. S. Aney	1948

C. P. & Berar

Mangaldas Pakvasa ..	1947

Orissa

Dr. K. N. Katju ..	1947
Asaf Ali	1948

Bombay

Sir John Colvile ..	1947
Raja Sir Maharaj Singh ..	1948

United Provinces

Mrs. Sarojini Naidu ..	1947
B. Mallik (*Offg.*) ..	1949

DOMINION OF INDIA

GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA (Salary Rs. 5,500 per month)

His Excellency the Hon. Chakravarti Rajagopalachari.

MEMBERS OF THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

(Salary per month Rs. 3,000 with sumptuary allowance of Rs. 500 and free quarters)

1. The Hon. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, *Prime Minister and Minister-in-Charge of External Affairs, Commonwealth Relations and Scientific Research.*
2. The Hon. Sardar Vallabhbhai J. Patel, *Deputy Prime Minister and Minister-in-Charge of Home, Information and Broadcasting and States.*
3. The Hon. Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, *Minister-in-Charge of Education.*
4. The Hon. Dr. John Matthai, *Minister-in-Charge of Finance.*
5. The Hon. Sardar Baldev Singh, *Minister-in-Charge of Defence.*
6. The Hon. Sri Jagjivan Ram, *Minister-in-Charge of Labour.*
7. The Hon. Mr. Rafi Ahmad Kidwai, *Minister-in-Charge of Communications.*
8. The Hon. Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, *Minister-in-Charge of Health.*
9. The Hon. Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, *Minister-in-Charge of Law.*
10. The Hon. Dr. Shyama Prosad Mookerjee, *Minister-in-Charge of Industry and Supply.*
11. The Hon. Sri N. V. Gadgil, *Minister-in-Charge of Works, Mines and Powers.*
12. The Hon. Sri K. C. Neogy, *Minister-in-Charge of Commerce.*
13. The Hon. Sri N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar, *Minister-in-Charge of Railways and Transport.*

CSL

14. The Hon. Sri Jairamdas Daulatram, *Minister-in-Charge of Food and Agriculture.*
15. The Hon. Sri Mohanlal Saksena, *Minister-in-Charge of Relief and Rehabilitation.*

*Ministers of State

16. The Hon. Sri K. Santanam, *Minister of State for Transport.*
17. The Hon. Sri R. R. Diwakar, *Minister of State for Information and Broadcasting.*
18. The Hon. Sri Satyanarain Sinha.

*Deputy Ministers of State

19. Sri Khurshed Lal (*Communications*).
20. Dr. Balkrishna V. Keskar (*External Affairs and Commonwealth Relations*).

Ministry of Home Affairs

Secretary—R. N. Banerjee, I.C.S.

Jt. Secy.—R. A. Gopalaswamy, I.C.S.

Ministry of External Affairs

Secretary-General—Sir Girija Sankar Bajpai.

Jt. Secretaries—P. A. Menon, R. R. Saksena, S. Ratnam.

Ministry of Commonwealth Relations

Secretary—S. Dutt, I.C.S.

Jt. Secretary—C. S. Jha, I.C.S.

Ministry of States

Political Adviser—V. P. Menon, C.I.E.

Secretary—M. K. Vellodi.

Jt. Secretary—N. M. Buch.

Ministry of Finance

Secretary—K. G. Ambegakar.

Jt. Secretaries—P. C. Bhattacharjee, K. R. Ayengar, R. Narayanaswami, G. K. S. Sarma, Brij Narain, Ramgopal, B. K. Nehru.

Ministry of Defence

Secretary—H. M. Patel, I.C.S.

Jt. Secretaries—B. B. Ghose, P. V. R. Rao, R. K. Ramadhyani.

Department of Scientific Research

Secretary—Dr. Sir S. S. Bhatnagar.

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* These are non-cabinet rank ministers. There are now three categories of ministers: *Cabinet Ministers, Ministers of State* and *Deputy Ministers.* Ministers of State are of two classes, Minister of State administers independently an important portfolio whereas Deputy Ministers merely 'assist' a minister. Ministers of State do not usually attend cabinet meetings except when these subjects are on the agenda. Dy. Ministers who occupy the juniormost rank among ministers will have a better status than Parliamentary Secretaries inasmuch as they will be entrusted with administrative functions in addition to parliamentary duties.

GSL

Ministry of Commerce

Secretary—C. C. Desai, I.C.S.

Jt. Secy.—K. K. Chetur, S. Ranganathan and L. K. Jha.

Ministry of Works, Mines & Powers

Secretary—B. K. Gokhale, I.C.S.

Jt. Secy.—D. L. Majumdar, I.C.S.

Ministry of Labour

Secretary—S. Lall, I.C.S.

Jt. Secretary—K. M. Subramaniam.

Ministry of Industries & Supplies

Secretary—S. A. Venkataraman.

Jt. Secretary—S. Butlingam; M. P. Pai, I.C.S.

Ministry of Education

Secretary—Dr. Tarachand.

Jt. Secretary—Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar.

Ministry of Health

Secretary—Dr. K. C. K. E. Raja.

Jt. Secretaries—P. Madhava Menon, I.C.S., Prem Krishen, I.C.S.

Ministry of Agriculture

Secretary—B. R. Sen, I.C.S.

Jt. Secretaries—S. Y. Krishnaswami, S. Basu, I.C.S., K. W. P. Marar.

Ministry of Transport

Secy,—Y. N. Sukhthankar. I.C.S.

Jt. Secy.—S. Chakravarti.

Ministry of Relief & Rehabilitation

Secretary—S. K. Kirpalani.

Ministry of Law

Secretary—S. A. Lall.

Ministry of Information & Broadcasting

Secretary—N. C. Mehta.

RAILWAY DEPARTMENT (Railway Board)

Chief Commissioner of Railways—Mr. K. C. Bakhle.

Transportation Member—V. P. Bhandarkar.

Engineering Member—Dr. H. J. Nichols.

Staff Member—F. C. Bhadwar.

Financial Commissioner of Railways—I. S. Puri.

Secretary—V. Nilkanthan.

TARIFF BOARD

President—G. L. Mehta.

Members—Mr. B. V. Narayanswami Naidu, Dr H. L. Dey and Mr. M. F. Rahman.

IMPORTANT POSTS

Director-General, Posts & Telegraphs—Sri Krishna Prasada.

Education Adviser to Govt. of India—Dr. Tarachand.

Director of Indian Science Institute—Dr. B. P. Dey.

Director-General, A. I. R.—N. A. S. Lakshmanan.

Director-General of Evacuation—Y. K. Puri, I.C.S.

Principal Information Officer—A. S. Iyangar.
Director-General of Archæology—Dr. N. P. Chakravarti.
Director-General, Health Services—Dr. K. C. K. E. Raja.
Military Accountant General—L. M. Ghalall.
Economic Adviser—W. R. Natu.
Director-General of Observatories—Dr. S. K. Banerjee.
Director, Anthropological Survey of India—Dr. B. S. Guha.
Census Commissioner of India—M. W. M. Yeates, I.C.S.
Director-General, Industries & Supplies—Dr. Sir J. C. Ghose.
Director-General of Food—Sri Vishnu Sahai.
Governor, Reserve Bank of India—Sir B. Rama Rau.
Director of Commercial Intelligence—Rai Bahadur J. N. Ghose.
Director of Statistics—A. R. Sinha.
Director of Scientific & Industrial Research—Sir Santi S. Bhatnagar.
Surveyor-General—Brigadier G. F. Heaney.
Director, Geological Survey—Dr. W. D. West.
Chief Press Adviser—Sir Ushanath Sen.
Controller of Printing & Stationery—E. V. Gregory.
Director-General Civil Aviation—T. P. Bhalla.
Director of National Archives—Dr. S. N. Sen.
Director-General of Resettlement and Employment—Dr. N. Das, I.C.S.
Auditor-General—Mr. V. Narahari Rao.
Advocate-General of India—Sir Noshirwan Engineer.

AIR TRANSPORT LICENSING BOARD

Chairman—K. S. Menon.

Members—Mr. Narayana Swami and Mr. V. P. Bhandarkar.
Secretary—N. N. Mittra.

FEDERAL PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

President—R. N. Banerjee, I.C.S.

NATIONAL DEFENCE

Commander-in-Chief of India and Chief of the Army Staff

General K. M. Cariappa.

Commanding Royal Indian Air Force

Air Marshal Sir Thomas Elmhirst.

Commander-in-Chief Royal Indian Navy

Commander-in-Chief Vice Admiral W. E. Parry

Other Important Army Appointments

Chief of the General Staff—General Kulwant Singh.
G.O.C. Eastern Command—Lt. General Thakur Nathu Singh.
G.O.C. Western Command—Lt.-General S. M. Shrinagesh.
G.O.C. Southern Command—Maj.-Gen. Maharaj Rajendra Singhji.
G.O.C. Bengal Bihar, Assam and Orissa Area—Maj.-Gen. Lakhinder Singh.
G.O.C. Delhi Area—Major-General S. P. P. Thorat.

CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY OF INDIA

President—Hon. Dr. Rajendra Prasad.
Vice-Presidents—Dr. H. C. Mukerjee and Sir T. V. Krishnamachari.
Speaker—G. V. Malvankar.
Deputy Speaker—Ananthasayanam Ayyangar.
Constitutional Adviser—Sir B. N. Rau, C.I.E.
Secretary—H. V. R. Aiyengar, I.C.S.
Jt.-Secretary and Draftsman—S. N. Mukherjee.

CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY MEMBERS*

Assam: 8

General: 6

Gopinath Bardoloi, Rohini K. Chaudhury, Rev. J. J. M. Nichols Roy, Kuladhar Chaliba, Dharanidhar Basumatari, Prof. Nibaran Ch. Lashkar,

Muslims:

Saiyed Muhammad Sa'adulla, Syed Abdur Rouf.

West Bengal: 21

General: 16

Prafulla Chandra Sen, Arun Chandra Guha, Mihirlal Chatterjee, Pt. Lakshmi Kanta Maitra, Dr. Monmohan Das, Satish Chandra Samanta, Basanta Kumar Das, Suresh Chandra Majumdar, Mrs. Renuka Ray, Upendranath Burman, P. D. Himmatsinka, Dr. H. C. Mukerjee, Surendra Mohan Ghose, Dr. Shyama Prasad Mukherjee, Ari Bahadur Gurung, R. E. Patel and K. C. Neogi.

Muslims: 5

Raghib Ahsan, Jasimuddin Ahmed, Naziruddin Ahmad, Abdul Hamid and Sir A. H. Ghuznavi.

Orissa: 9

General: 9

Mr. Harekrishna Mahtab, Maharaja of Parlakemedi, Mr. Rajakrishna Bose, Mr. Santanukumar Das, Mr. Biswanath Das, Mr. B. Das, Mr. Nandakishore Das, Lokenath Mishra and Mr. Lakshminarain Sahu.

Central Provinces & Berar: 17

General: 16

Pandit R. S. Shukla, Mr. B. A. Mandloi, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Dr. Raghu Vira, Thakur Chedilal, Sir Hari Singh Gour, Seth Govinddas, Mr. S. T. Dharmadhikari, Mr. H. J. Khandekar, Mr. R. K. Sidhva, Mr. H. V. Kamath, Mr. Brijlal N. Biyani, Dr. P. S. Deshmukh, Mr. L. S. Bhatkar, Mr. Frank Anthony, and Ghanshayam Singh Gupta.

Muslims: 1

Kazi Syed Karimuddin.

East Punjab: 16

General: 8

Dr. Bakshi Tek Chand, Jairamdas Daulatram, Lala Achint Ram, Master Nand Lal, Chaudhury Ranbir Singh, Pt. Thakurdas Bhargava, Prof. Yeshwant Rai, Vikramial Sondhi.

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*Corrected upto 15 Nov. 1948.

Muslims: 4

S. Mahbub Ilahi, Sufi Abdul Hamid Khan, Maulana Dawood Ghaznavi, *one seat vacant.*

Sikh: 4

Sardar Baldev Singh, Giani Gurumukh Singh Musafir, Sardar Hukam Singh, Sardar Bhopinder Sing Mar.

United Provinces: 55

General: 47

Pandit J. L. Nehru, Mr. Purshottamdas Tandon, Pandit G. B. Pant, Sir S. Radhakrishnan, Acharya J. B. Kripalani, Sardar Jogendra Singh, Mr. A. Dharamdass, Mrs. Sucheta Kripalani, Mr. Mohanlal Gautam, Mrs. Purnima Banerji, Mrs. Kamala Chaudhuri, Mr. Dayal Das Bhagat, Mr. Dharam Prakash, Mr. Masurya Din, Mr. Sunder Lall, Mr. Bhagwan Din, Mr. Pragi Lal, Mr. Damodar Swarup Seth, Pt. Govind Malaviya, Dr. John Mathai, Mr. Bal Krishna Sharma, Mr. Mohan Lal Saksena, Mr. Ram Chandra Gupta, Mr. Hargovind Pant, Acharya Jugal Kishore, Mr. Hariharnath Shastri, Mr. Shibban Lal Saksena, Mr. Ajit Prasad Jain, Mr. Vishwambhar Dayal, Tripathi, Mr. Feroze Gandhi, Mr. Kamalapati Tiwari, Mr. R. V. Dhulekar, Mr. Algu Rai Shastri, Mr. Phool Singh, Mr. Venkatesh Narayan Tewari, Mr. Gopal Narain, Mr. Banshi Dhar Misra, Krishna Chandra Sharma, Sir J. P. Srivastava, Dr. B. V. Keskar, Satish Chandra, Pandit H. N. Kunzru, Mr. Khurshed Lal, Mr. Jaspat Rai Kapoor, Mr. Mahabir Tyagi, Raja Jagannath Baksh Singh, Sir Padampat Singhania.

Muslims: 8

Nawab Mohammad Ismail Khan, Begum Aziz Rasul, Z. A. Lari, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, Rafi Ahmed Kidwai, S. M. Rizwan Allah, Mr. Aziz Ahmad Khan and Maulana Hasrat Mohani.

Bombay: 21

General: 19

Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, Mr. Shankerrao Deo, Mr. B. G. Kher, Mr. K. M. Munshi, Mr. Kanyalal N. Desai, Mr. R. R. Diwakar, Dr. Joseph Alban D'Souza, Mr. N. V. Gadgil, Mr. B. M. Gupte, Mr. K. M. Jedhe, Mrs. Hansa Mehta, Mr. R. M. Nalavade, Mr. S. Nijalingappa, Mr. S. K. Patil, Sir H. P. Mody, Mr. H. V. Pataskar, Dr. R. B. Ambedkar, Mr. V. G. Mavlankar and Mr. Khandhubai K. Desai.

Muslims: 2

Abdul Kadir Abdul Aziz Khan, and Mr. Abdur Kader Mohammad Shaikh.

Bihar: 36

General: 31

Mr. C. H. Bhabha, Dr. Rajendra Prasad, Prof. K. T. Shah, Mr. Srikrishna Sinha, Mr. Anugraha Narayan Sinha, Dr. P. K. Sen, Dr. Sachchidananda Sinha, Srinarain Mahtha, Dr. Raghunandan Prasad, Mr. Jagjivan Ram, Mr. Bhugwat Prasad, Mr. Krishnaballabh Sahay, Mr. Maheshprasad Sinha, Mr. Sarangdhar Sinha, Mr. Rameswar Prasad Sinha, Mr. Devendranath Samanta, Mr. Jadubans Sahay, Mr. Amirakumar Ghose, Mr. Satyanarain Sinha, Mr. Kamaleshwari Prasad Yadav, Mr. Dipnarain Sinha, Mr. Ram Narain Singh, Mr. Guptanath Sinha, Mr. Jagatnarain Lal, Mr. Boniface Lakra, Mr. Brajeswar Prasad, Mr. Chandrika Ram, Mr. Banarasiprasad Jhonjhonwala.

Rai Bahadur Shyamnandan Sahay, Maharajadhiraja Sir Kameshwar Singh of Darbhanga and Mr. Jaipal Singh.

Muslims: 5

Mr. Hossain Imam, Sardar Mohammad Latifur Rahman, Mr. Tajamul Hussain, Syed Jafar Imam and Mr. Mohd. Tahir.

Madras: 49

General: 45

Mr. K. R. Shanmukham Chetty, Dr. B. Pattabhi Sitaramayya, Mr. T. Prakasam, N. Gopalaswami Iyengar, Sri Alladi Krishnaswami Iyer, Mr. M. Anantasayanam Iyengar, Raja of Bobbili, Kumararaja Sir M. A. Muthia Chettiar, Mrs. Ammu Swaminathan, Mr. Ramnath Goenka, Mr. T. T. Krishnamachari, Dr. P. Subbarayan, Fr. Jerome D'Souza, Sri B. Gopala Reddi, D. Govind Doss, K. Kamaraj, P. Kunhiraman, V. I. Muniswami Pillai, V. Nadimuthu Pillai, S. Nagappa, P. L. Narasimha Raju, C. Perumalswami Reddiar, T. A. Ramalingam Chettiar, Kallur Subha Rao, A. K. Menon, M. Tirumala Rao, Maturi Satyanarayana, O. P. Ramaswami Reddiar, Prof. N. G. Ranga, N. Sanjeeva Reddi, K. Santhanam, B. Siva Rao, S. H. Prater, U. Srinivasa Mallayya, P. Kakkan, M. C. Virabahu, T. J. M. Wilson, V. C. Kesava Rao, C. Subramaniam, V. Subramaniam, P. M. Velayudhapani, O. V. Alagesan, L. Krishnaswami Bharathi, Mrs. Durga Bai and Mrs. Dakshayani Velayudhan.

Muslims: 4

Muhammad Ismail Sahib, K. T. M. Ahmed Ibrahim, A. Mahboob Ali Baig Sahib and B. Poker Sahib Bahadur.

Delhi: 1

Lala Deshbandhu Gupta.

Ajmer-Merwara: 1

Pandit Mukut Beharilal Bhargava.

Coorg: 1

C. M. Poonacha.

INDIAN STATES

Mysore State: 7

K. Changalroya Reddy, K. Hannumanthaiya, Mr. H. R. Guruv Reddy, Mr. S. V. Krishnamurthy Rao, Mr. T. Channiah, Shri Siddaveerappa, and Shri T. Siddalingaiya.

Baroda State: 3

Dr. Jivraj Narayan Mehta, Durbar Gopaldas A. Desai, Shri Chunilal P. Shah.

Cochin State: 1

Shri P. Govinda Menon.

Jaipur State: 1

Sir V. T. Krinshamachari, Pandit Hiralal Shastri, Raja Sardar Singhji Bahadur of Khetri.

Jodhpur State: 2

Sri P. S. Raw, Mr. Jainarain Vyas.

Bikaner State: 1

Rao Bahadur Kanwar Jaswant Singhji.

Kolhapur State: 1

Prof. Balasaheb Khardekar.

Travancore: 6

Thanu Pillai, R. Sankar, P. S. Nataraja Pillai, K. A. Mahommed, E. John Phillipose, Miss Annie Mascrane.

Junagadh: 1

Samaldas Gandhi.

Tripura, Manipur and Khasi States: 1

Sri Girija Shankar Guha.

Sikkim-Cooch Bihar: 1

Shri Himmat Singh K. Maheshwari.

Rampur-Banaras: 1

Col. B. H. Zaidi.

Mayurbhanj: 1

Lalmohan Pati.

Patiala and East Punjab States Union: 3

Sardar Jaidev Singh, (*two seats vacant*).

Cutch: 1

Shri Bhawanji Arjan Khimji.

Residuary States: 1

Thakur Krishna Singh.

United States of Matsya: 2

Shri Ram Chandra Upadhaya, Shri Raj Bahadur.

United States of Rajasthan: 4

No Election.

United States of Vindhya Pradesh: 4

No Election.

United States of Madhya Pradesh: 7

(Gwaliar, Indore & Malwa)

Shri V. S. Sarwate, Lt. Col. Brijraj Narain, Shri Gopi Krishna Vajayavargiya, Shri Ram Sahai, Shri Kaluram Viruikar, Shri Radhaballav Vijaivargiya, *one seat vacant.*

Orissa States: 4

Shri N. Madhava Rau, R. B. Lala Raj Kanwar, Shri Sarangadhar Das, Shri Yudhisthir Mishra.

C. P. and Berar States: 3

Shri R. L. Malviya, Shri Kishorimohan Tripathi, Ramprasad Potai.

Madras States: 1

Shri V. Ramaiah.

Bombay States: 4

Khan Bahadur F. Kothawala, Vinayak Rao Balashankar Vaidya, Shri B. N. Munavalli, Shri Gokulbhai D. Bhatt.

Himachal Pradesh: 1

Dr. Y. S. Parmar.

Unted State of Kathiawar (Saurashtra): 4

Shri Balwant Rai Gopalji Mehta, Shri Jaisukh Lal Hathi, Shri Amritlal Vithaldas Thakkar, Shri Chimanlal Chakubhai Shah.

COMMITTEES OF THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

Rules & Procedure Committee

Mr. Jagjivan Ram, Mr. Frank Anthony, Sir A. Krishnaswami Iyer, Bakshi Sir Tek Chand, Dr. Alban D'Souza, N. Gopalaswami Ayyengar, Mr. Purushottamdas Tandon, Mr. Gopinath Bardoloi, Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya, Sardar Harnam Singh, Mr. Meherchand Khanna Mr. K. M. Munshi, Srimathi Durgabhai and Mr. Rafi Ahmed Kidwai.

States Committee

Pandit J. L. Nehru, Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, Dr. B. Pattabhi Sitaramaya, N. Gopalaswmi Ayyangar.

Credential Committee

Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar, Bakshi Sir Tek Chand, B. Pocker Sahib Bahadur, Shri Ram Saha.

Finance & Staff Committee

Dr. Rajendra Prasad, Dr. H. C. Mukerjee, Sir V. T. Krishnamachari, Satyanarain Sinha, Jaipal Singh, V. I. Muniswami Pillai, N. V. Gadgil, Seth Govind Dass, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Bhawanji N. Khimji, K. Santhanam.

Steering Committee

Maulana A. K. Azad Sardar Ballabhbhai Patel, Sardar Ujjal Singh, Srimati Durga Bai, Satyanarain Sinha, Anantasayanam Iyengar, K. M. Munshi, Diwan Chamanlal, Lakshminarain Sahu, P. Govinda Menon, C. S. Venkatachar, S. N. Mani, Syed Mohd. Saadulla, Abdul Kadar Mohd Shaikh, S. M. Ghose, Jagatnarainlal, J. B. Kripalani, Gyani Gurumukh Singh, K. Chengalaraya Reddy, Balwant Rai Mehta, R. M. Nalavade and Suresh Chandra Majumdar.

Negotiating Committee

Maulana A. K. Azad, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Sardar Ballabbhai Patel, Dr. B. Sitaramayya, Sankarrao Deo and N. Gopalaswami Iyengar.

House Committee

Dr. B. Pattabhi Sitaramayya (*Chairman*), Dip Narain Singh, Nandkishore Das Mohanlal Saksena, H. V. Kamath, R. R. Diwakar, Mrs. Ammu Swaminathan, U. N. Burman, Jainarain Vyas, B. Shiva Rao and Deshbandhu Gupta.

Union Subjects Committee

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Dr. Pattabhi Sitaramayya, Pandit J. B. Pant, Jairamdas Daulatram, Biswanath Das, N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar, Bakshi Sir Tek Chand, Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar, D. P. Khaitan, M. R. Masani, K. M. Munshi, Sir B. L. Mitter, Sir T. V. Krishnamachari, Sir A. Ramaswami Mudaliar, Col. Shri Maharaj Himmat Singhji.

Advisory Committee

Mr. M. R. Masani, Prof. K. T. Shah, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Sir Alladi Krishnaswamy Ayyar, Mr. K. M. Munshi, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, Mr. Jairamdas Daulatram.

Mr. Gopinath Bardoloi, Rev. J. J. Nichols Roy Mr. Rup Nath Brahma, Mr. Aliba Impi, Snehonkumar Chakma.

S. M. Ghose, Prithyi Singh Azad, Dharam Prakash, V. I. Muniswami Pillai, Sardar Baldev Singh, Sardar Pratap Singh, Gyani Kartar Singh, J. L. P. Roche-Victoria, J. B. Kripalani, Sadar Ballabhbhai Patel, Mrs. Hansa Mehta, Purshottamdas Tandon, Sardar K. M. Panikkar, Maulna Hafizur Rahman, Syed Ali Zaheer, Abdul Qayum Ansari, Syed M. Saadulla, Syed Jafar Imam, Haji Abdul S. H. Ishaq Sait, Kasturbhai Lalbhai, Sir Kameswar Singh of Darbhanga, N. Madhava Rau, Dr. Mohan Sinha Mehta, M. S. Aney, Darbar Gopaldas Desai, Gokubhai Bhatt, K. Chengalaraya Reddy, Gobind Das, Pandit L. K. Maitra, Pt. Thakurdas Bhargava.

A. V. Thakkar, Jaipal Singh, Debendra Nath Samanta, Phool Bhan Shaha, Raj Krishna Bose.

Mr. Jagjivan Ram, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, Sardar Jogendra Singh, Dr. S. P. Mukherjee, Sardar Ujjal Singh, Sardar Harnam Singh, Bakshi Sir Tek Chand, Mr. Gopi Chand Bhargava, Mr. H. J. Khanderkar, Mr. P. R. Thakur, Sir Homi Mody, Dr. H. C. Mookherji, Mr. P. K. Salve, Mr. S. H. Prater, Mr. F. R. Anthony, Mr. C. Rajagopalachariar, Mr. R. K. Sidhwa, Mr. M. Rutnaswamy, Mr. M. P. H. Collins, Dr. Alban D'Souza and Pt. Govind Ballabh Pant.

Union Constitution Committee

Pandit J. L. Nehru, Pandit G. B. Pant, Jagjivan Ram, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar, M. K. Munshi, Prof. K. T. Shah, Sir V. T. Krishnamachari, Sardar K. M. Pannikar, N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar, P. Govinda Menon, M. A. Srinivasan, B. H. Zaidi.

Provincial Constitution Committee

Sardar Ballabhbhai Patel, Dr. P. Subbarayan, Dr. B. Sitaramiyya, B. G. Kher, Brijlal Biyani, Dr. K. N. Katju, Phulan Prasad Verma, Harekrishna Mahtab, R. K. Chaudhury, Diwan Chaman Lal, Dr. P. K. Sen, C. M. Poonacha, Satyanarain Sinha, Rafi Ahmed Kidwai, Mrs. Hansa Mehta, Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Dr. H. C. Mookherji, J. B. Kripalani, Shankarrao Deo, R. R. Divakar, S. Nagappa.

The Drafting Committee

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar (*Chairman*), N. Gopalaswamy Ayyangar, Aliadi Krishnaswami Ayyar, K. M. Munshi, D. P. Khaitan, Saiyid Mohammed Saadulla, N. Madhva Rao.

Hindi Translation Committee

(*For translation of Draft Constitution into Hindi*)

Dr. Raghuvira, G. S. Gupta (*Chairman*), Dr. Nagendra, Hari Bhau Upadhya, Kamala Pati Tiwari.

Urdu Translation Committee

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad (*Chairman*), Dr. Mujib of Jamia Millia, H. K. Sherwani, Ajmal Khan.

Ad Hoc Committee on Citizenship Clause

Sir S. Varadachar, Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar, Sir B. L. Mitter, Bakshi Sir Tek Chand, Dr. K. N. Katju, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, K. M. Munshi.

Committee for Administrative Changes in Chief Commissioners Provinces

N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar, Dr. B. Pattabhai Sitaramayya, K. Santhanam, Deshbandhu Gupta, Mukut Beharilal Bhargava, C. M. Poonacha, Hussain Imam.

INDIAN DIPLOMATIC PERSONNEL

Country	*Name*	*Rank*
Afganistan ..	Wing Commd. Rupchand	Ambassador
Belgium ..	B. H. F. B. Tyabji	Charge d' Affaires
Burma ..	Dr. M. A. Rauf	Ambassador
British West Indies & Br. Guinea ..	Prof. Satya Charan	Ind. Commissioner
British East Africa ..	Apa Sahib B. Pant	Ind. Commissioner
Argentina	Aftab Ali	Consul General
China	Sardar K. M. Pannikar	Ambassador
Czechoslovakia ..	N. Raghavan	Ambassador
Brazil	M. R. Masani	Ambassador
Canada	Sardar H. S. Mallik	High Commissioner
England	K. V. Krishna Menon	High Commissioner
Australia	Lt. Col. Daya Singh Bedi	High Commissioner
Ceylon	V. V. Giri	High Commissioner
France	Sir N. R. Pillai	Charge d' Affaires
Egypt	Dr. Syed Hussain	Ambassador
Iran	Syed Ali Zahir	Ambassador
Fiji	S. A. Waiz	High Commissioner
Japan ..	B. N. Chakravarti	Head of the Indian Liaison Mission, Tokio
Germany	Brigadier Khubchand	do, Berlian
Italy	R. S. Mani	Charge d' Affaires
Nepal ..	Sardar Surjit Singh	Ambassador
French India & Portuguese India	Mirza Rashid Ali Beg	Consul General

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French Indo-China ..	Asoke N. Mehta	Consul
Netherlands ..	Dr. Mohan Singh	Ambassador
Switzerland	D. Bulabhai Desai	Envoy Extraordinary
Siam	Bhagwat Dayal	Envoy Extraordinary
Mauritius ..	Dharam Yash Dev	High Commissioner
Malaya	J. A. Thivy	Representative
Pakistan	Dr. Sitaram S. K. Bose	High Commissioner Dy.-High Commissioner, Eastern Pakistan
United Nations ..	Dr. P. P. Pillai	Permanent Representative
Luxemburgh ..	B. F. H. B. Tyabjee	Charge d' Affaires
Lebanon	Dr. Syed Hussain	Minister
U.S.S.R.	Sm. Vijayalakshmi Pandit	Ambassador
U.S.A.	Sir B. Rama Raw	Ambassador
Turkey	Dewan Chamanlal	Ambassador
Kashgar (Sinkiang, China)	Capt R. D. Sathe	Consul General
Netherland East Indies	S. C. Alagappan	Envoy
Sweden	R. K. Nehru	Minister
Sikkim	Lt. Col. B. D. S. Bedi	Political Officer
Indonesia ..	N. Raghavan	Consul General

FOREIGN DIPLOMATIC PERSONNEL TO INDIA

Country	*Name*	*Rank*
Afganistan	Sardar Najibulla Khan	Ambassador
Belgium	Prince Ugene de Ligne	Ambassador
China	Lo Chia Luen	Ambassador
Czechoslovakia ..	Jaroslov Sejnoha	Ambassador
Egypt	Ismail Kamal Beg	Ambassador
France	M. Raux	Charge d' Affaires
U.S.S.R.	K. V. Novikov	Ambassador
U.S.A.	Loy Henderson	Ambassador
Netherlands .	Arnold Lamping	Ambassador
Switzerland	Armin Daeniker	Ambassador
Burma	U. Kyaw Khine	Charge d' Affaires
Siam	Dr. Thanot Khoman	Charge d' Affaires
Iran	Ali Motamedy	Ambassador
Nepal	Commanding General Singh Shamsher J.B.R.	Ambassador
Italy	Renzo di Carrobio	Charge d' Affaires
Norway . ..	Jens Salicive	Minister Extraordinary
Brazil . ..	J. Cochurane de Alencar	Charge d' Affaires
Turkey	Ali Tok Geldi	Ambassador
Canada	John Kearaney	High Commissioner

England	Sir Archibald Nye	High Commissioner
Pakistan	Mohammad Ismail	High Commissioner
Ceylon	M. W. H. De Silva	High Commissioner
Australia	Lt.Gen. Sir Iven Mackay	High Commissioner
Sweden	Gunner Valfrid Jarring	Minister

INDIAN GOVERNMENT TRADE REPRESENTATIVES

Place, Name, Address and Jurisdiction:

1. *London*—(*i*) Mr. M. J. Desai, Commercial Adviser to the High Commissioner for India, London; (*ii*) Mr. A. S. Lall, M.B.E., I.C.S., Indian Trade Commissioner; India House, Aldwych, London, W.C. 2.—*Jurisdiction*—U. K. and such other countries of Europe with which private trading has been resumed, except countries under the jurisdiction of the Paris Office.
2. *New York*—Mr. R. R. Saksena, Consul-General for India, 639, Fifth Avenue, New York. *Jurisdiction*—United States of America.
3. *Buenos Aires*—Mr. J. R. K. Modi, Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Avenue Roque Saenz Pena 621. Buenos Aires, Argentine. *Jurisdiction*—Whole of South America as far north as and including Guatemala.
4. *Toronto*—Mr. M. R. Ahuja, Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Royal Bank Building Toronto, Canada. *Jurisdiction*—Canada and Newfoundland.
5. *Sydney*—Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Prudential Building, Martin Place, Sydney Australia. *Jurisdiction*—Australia and New Zealand.
6. *Mombasa*—Sardar Sahib Sangat Singh, Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, "Africa House" Killindini Road, Mombasa. *Jurisdiction*—East Africa (Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika) Zanzibar, and Belgian Congo.
7. *Alexandria*—Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Al Bashir Building No. 5, Rue Adib Bey Issac, Avenuq de la Reine Nazli, Alexandria, Egypt. *Jurisdiction*—Turkey, Syria, Palestine Egypt, Transjordan, Saudi-Arabia, Iraq, Arab Shore of Persian Gulf (including Baharian and Kuwait, Muscat, the Sudan and Yeman).
8. *Tehran*—Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Avenue Ferdowsi, Tehran. *Jurisdiction*—Persia (Iran).
9. *Colombo*—Dr. T. G. Menon, Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner Chaffoor Building, Fort Colombo. *Jurisdiction*—Ceylon.
10. *Paris*—S. S. Bajpai, Esq., Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, 31, Rue De La Baume, Paris VII E. France. *Jurisdiction*—Portugal, Spain, France, Switzerland, Luxemburg, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Czechoslovakia, Norway and Sweden.
11. *Tokyo*—Mr. D. G. Mulherker Indian Government Trade Commissioner, C/o Indian Liaison Mission Tokyo, Japan. *Jurisdiction*—Japan.
12. *Rangoon*—Mr. D. N. Naravane, Commercial Secy. to Indian Embassy, Randeria Building, Phayre Street, Rangoon, Burma. *Jurisdiction*—Burma.

13. *Berlin*—The Economic Adviser to the Indian Military Mission C/o Hq. Control Commission, Germany (BE) Berlin. *Jurisdiction*—Germany and Austria.
14. *Karachi*—L. R. S. Singh, Indian Govt. Trade Commissioner, Mohatta Building, McLeod Road, Karachi. *Jurisdiction*—Pakistan.

TRADE REPRESENTATIVES OF OVERSEAS GOVERNMENTS IN INDIA

1. *The United Kingdom*—U. K. Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon, Eastern House, Man Singh Road, New Delhi. U. K. Trade Commissioner in India, Menkwa Buildings, 10, Outram Road, Bombay. U. K. Trade Commissioner for India, 1, Harrington Street, Calcutta. U. K. Trade Commissioner for South India, Rutland Gate, Numgambakkam, Madras 6.
2. *Canada*—Commercial Secretary to the High Commissioner for Canada in India, Grasham Assurance House, Minto Road, Bombay.
3. *Australia*—Senior Australian Govt. Trade Commissioner in India, Menkwa Buildings, Outram Road, Bombay. Australian Govt. Trade Commissioner in India, 2, Fairlie Place, Calcutta.
4. *New Zealand*—New Zealand Govt. Trade Commissioner in India, Second Floor, Botawalla Chambers, Sir Pheroze Shah Mehta Road, Fort, Bombay.
5. *Ceylon*—Trade Commissioner for Ceylon in India, Ceylon House, Hornby Road, Bombay.
6. *Switzerland*—Swiss Trade Commissioner for India, Burma and Ceylon, Gresham Assurance House, Sir Pherozeshah Mehta Road, Bombay.
7. *Iran (Persia)*—Trade Commissioner for Iran in India, Dorchester, Flat 4 H., Queens Rd., Fort, Bombay.
8. *Netherland East Indies and Holland*—N. E. I. Trade Commissioner in India, Post Box No. 260, Bombay.
9. *U. S. S. R.*—Trade Agent of the U. S. S. R. in India, 4, Camac Street, Calcutta.
10. *Czechoslovakia*—Czechosloyakian Trade Commissioner for India, No. 43, Mahatma Gandhi Road, Bombay.
11. *Italy*—Commercial Secretary in the Italian Embassy in India, Room Nos. 29-31, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Place, New Delhi.
12. *Turkey*—Commericial Representative of the Turkish Govt. in India, No. 1, Tughlak Lane, New Delhi.
13. *Denmark*—Danish Govt. Trade Commissioner in India, Pallonji Mansion, New Cuffe Parade, Bombay, 5.
14. *France*—The French Commercial Attache, 23, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Place, New Delhi. The French Counsellor for Economic Affairs, Adelphi Building, 3, Queens Road, Fort Bombay. The French Commercial Attache, 13, Park Masions, Park Street, Calcutta.
15. *Egypt*—Commercial Attache to the Government of Egypt in India. C/o Royal Consulate General of Egypt, Cambatta Building, Queens Road, Churchgate Reclamation, *Bombay*.

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INDIAN PROVINCES

ASSAM

Governor—His Excellency Sri Prakasha

Population—75 lakhs
Area—50,296 sq. miles
Capital—Shillong

Assam Cabinet

Sri Gopinath Bordoloi, Premier (*Home, Education, Transport, Industries & Co-operation*).

Sri Bishnuram Medhi (*Finance, Revenue & Legislative*).

Rev. J. J. M. Nichols-Roy (*Public Works*).

Sri Rannath Das (*Medical, Public Health & Electricity*).

Maulvi Abdul Matlib Majumdar (*Local Self-Government, Agriculture & Veterinary*).

Sri Rupnath Brahma (*Forest, Judicial & Registration*).

Sri Omeo Kumar Das (*Food, Supply & Labour*).

Maulana Md. Tayyebulla (*Excise, Publicity & Jails*).

Speaker of the Legislative Assembly
Hon. Sri Daveswar Sarma.

Deputy Speaker—Mrs. Bonily Khongman.

BIHAR

Governor—His Excellency Sri M. S. Aney

Population—36 millions.
Area—About 69,745 sq. miles.
Capital—Patna.

Bihar Cabinet

Dr. Srikrishna Sinha, Premier (*Home*).

Dr. Anugrah Narayan Sinha (*Finance, Labour & Supply*).

Dr. Sayid Mahmud (*Development and Transport*).

Sri Jaglal Chaudhury (*Public Health*).

Sri Ramcharitar Singh (*Irrigation., Electrification, Education & Information*).

Sri Krishna Ballabh Sahay (*Revenue, Forest & Excise*).

Sri Binodanand Jha (*Local Self-Government & Medical*).

Abdul Qaiyum Ansari (*Public Works & Cottage Industries*).

President, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri Vindeswari Prasad Varma.

Speaker, Legislative Council—Hon. Sri Shyama Prasad Sinha.

BOMBAY

Governor—His Excellency Raja Sir Maharaj Singh

Population—About 21 millions.
Area—76,443 sq. miles.
Capital—Bombay.

Bombay Cabinet

Sri B. G. Kher, Premier (*Education*).

Sri Morarji Desai (*Home and Revenue*).

Dr. M. D. D. Gilder (*Health and Public Works*).

Sri Dinkarrao N. Desai (*Law and Civil Supplies*).

Sri V. L. Mehta (*Finance, Co-operation and Village Industries*).

Sri L. M. Patil (*Excise and Reconstruction*)

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* *Governor's salary*—The Governors of Indian Provinces get a salary of Rs. 66,000 per year under Government of India Act 1935, as adopted since August, 1947. They are also entitled to certain allowances and privileges.

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Sri Gulzarilal Nanda (*Labour and Housing*).

Sri M. P. Patil (*Forest and Agriculture*).

Sri G. D. Vartak (*Local Self-Government*).

Sri G. D. Tapase (*Industries, Fisheries, and Backward Class Dept.*).

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Sri Ramchandra Ganesh Soman.

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri K. S. Firodia.

CENTRAL PROVINCES & BERAR

Governor—His Excellency Sri Mangaldas Mancharam Pakvasa

Population—16·8 millions.
Area—98,575 sq. miles.
Capital—Nagpur.

C. P. & Berar Cabinet

Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla, Premier (*General Administration, Development and Labour*).

Pandit D. P. Mishra (*Local Self-Government, Publicity, Home, Adult Education*).

Sri D. K. Mehta (*Finance, Commerce and Industry*).

Sri S. V. Gokhale (*Education and Revenue*).

Sri R. K. Patil (*Food, Civil Supplies, Agriculture, Co-operative Societies*).

Sri W. S. Barlingay (*Rural Development, Medical and Public Health*).

Sri R. Agnibhoj (*Public Works, Refugee Relief and Rehabilitation*).

Sri P. K. Deshmukh (*Law, Registration, Judicial, Forests*).

Sri A. M. Kakade (*Excise, Rural Development, Backward Tribes and Minorities*).

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri Ghanshyam Singh Gupta

EAST PUNJAB

Governor—His Excellency Sir Chandulal Trivedi, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S

Population—12·4 millions.
Capital—Not settled.
Area—30,541 sq. miles.

East Punjab Cabinet

Dr. Gopichand Bhargava, Premier (*General Administration, Education, Medicine, Public Health and Civil Supplies*).

Sardar Swaran Singh (*Law and Order, Justice and Jails, Land Revenue, Irrigation and Electricity*).

Sardar Partap Singh (*Relief and Rehabilitation*).

Capt. Ranjit Singh (*P.W.D., Buildings, Roads and Transport*).

Sri Prithvi Singh Azad (*Excise, Taxation and Labour*).

Giani Kartar Singh (*Forest, Agriculture, Veterinary and Co-operative Societies*).

Chaudhuri Krishan Gopal Dutt (*Finance, Local Self-Government and Industries*).

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sardar Kapoor Singh

MADRAS

Governor—His Excellency the Maharaja of Bhavnagar.

Population—49·3 millions.
Area—126,166 sq. miles.
Capital—Madras.

Madras Cabinet

Sri O. P. Ramaswami Reddiar, Premier (*Hindu Religious Endowments, Home, Legislation*).

Dr. T. S. S. Rajan (*Food*).

Sri M. Bhaktavatsalam (*Public Works, Information and Broadcasting, Prohibition*).

Dr. S. Gurupadam (*Prohibition and Firka Development*).

Sri Sitarama Reddi (*Industries and Labour*).

Sri K. Chandramouli (*Local Administration and Co-operation*).

Sri T. S. Avinasalingam Chettiyar (*Education*).

Sri K. Madhava Menon (*Agriculture, Forests, Veterinary and Prisons*).

Sri A. B. Shetty (*Public Health and Medicine*).

Sri V. Kurmayya (*Harijan Uplift, Fisheries and Rural Development*).

President, Legislative Council—Hon. Rai Bahadur Ramkrishna Rajulungaru.

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri J. Sivashanmukham Pillai.

ORISSA

Governor—His Excellency Mr. Asaf Ali.

Population—Over 87 millions.
Area—About 32,198 sq. miles.
Capital—Bhuvaneswar.

Orissa Cabinet

Sri Harekrishna Mahtab, Premier (*Home, Finance, Planning and Reconstruction and Publicity*).

Sri Nityananda Kanungo (*Law, Development, Commerce and Labour*).

Pandit Lingaraj Misra (*Education, Health and Local Self-Government*).

Sri Lal Ranjit Singh Bariha (*Public Works*).

Sri Sadasiv Tripathi (*Revenue and Supply and Transport*).

Sri Rajkrishna Bose (*Backward Classes Welfare*).

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri Lalmohan Patnaik.

WEST BENGAL

Governor—His Excellency Dr. K. N. Katju, LL.D.

Population—21·2 millions.
Area—27,748 sq. miles.
Capital—Calcutta.

West Bengal Cabinet

Dr. B. C. Roy (*General Administration, Transport, Development, Health & Local Self-Government*).

Sri Nalini Ranjan Sarkar (*Finance, Commerce & Industry*).

Sri Harendranath Chaudhury (*Education*).

Sri Prafulla Chandra Sen (*Civil Supplies*).

Sri Jadavendranath Panja (*Agriculture & Veterinary*).

Sri Bimal Chandra Sinha (*Works, Buildings & Land Revenue*).

Sri Nikunja Behari Maity (*Co-operation, Relief & Rehabilitation*).

Sri Niharendu Dutt Majumdar (*Judicial & Legislative*).

Sri Kalipada Mukherjee (*Labour*)

Sri Bhupati Majumder (*Irrigation & Waterways*).

Sri Hem Chandra Naskar (*Forest & Fisheries*).

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri Iswar Das Jalan.

UNITED PROVINCES

Governor—Her Excellency Mrs. Sarojini Naidu.

Population—55 millions.
Area—106,247 sq. miles.
Capital—Lucknow.

U. P. Cabinet

Pandit Gobind Ballav Pant, Premier (*General Administration, Judicial Finance and Information*).

Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim (*Communications and Public Works*).
Sri Sampurnanand (*Education and Labour*).
Sri Hukum Singh (*Revenue and Forests*).
Nisar Ahmad Sherwani (*Agriculture and Rural Development*).
Sri Girdhari Lal (*Excise and Registration*).
Sri Atmaram Govind Kher (*Local Self-Government*).
Sri Chandra Bhan Gupta (*Medical and Public Health, Food and Civil Supplies*).
Sri Lal Bahadur Sastri (*Home and Transport*).
Sri Keshava Deva Malaviya (*Development, Industries and Co-operative Societies*).
President, Legislative Council—Hon. Dr. Sir Sitaram.
Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Sri Purushottamdas Tandon.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER'S PROVINCES

DELHI

Chief Commissioner—Sankar Prasad, I.C.S.

AJMER-MERWARA

Chief Commissioner—H. R. Shevdasani, I.C.S.

ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS

Chief Commissioner—I. Majid.

HIMACHAL PRADESH

Chief Commissioner—N. C. Mehta, I.C.S.

COORG

Chief Commissioner—Dewan Bahadur K. Chengappa, C.I.E.

WORLD AFFAIRS 1948

By "H. N."

The New Diplomacy—The year 1948 has been called the year par excellence of crises—crises in the internal affairs of countries and crises in international relations. On the side of international relations the two giants vying for world supremacy have been playing a stolid war of nerves, fully prepared as it were to have a measure of strength straightway. But then it seems that much of the crises, both internal and external, have been engineered in the warring camps by their agents-provocateurs due to crisis in their own self-confidence. In general although governments representing nations seemed at the beginning of the year further away from peace and mutual understanding than in 1947, the peoples of the world were more anxious for peace and certainly exhibited more need of it. Meanwhile the creditor of the world was interested mainly in the stabilization of Europe, as the next of kin in whose shoes it wants to come out as the leader of the world, continued its wire-pulling now in the open and now from behind the scene and side by side the party-machine of the world agitator was growing more voluble seeking support in the distress of the peoples.

The Global Conflict--The strongest single crisis in the world today is the conflict of two cliuching ideologies. At the cross-roads of an era of the decadence of imperialism in its old form, the crushed common man noticed with dismay the revival of the comintern on a broader scale. The Truman doctrine had sought to limit communism within the orbit of Russia and the Eastern European States. By the beginning of 1948 that objective was at least outwardly gained because not only had military aid been given to Greece, Turkey and Iran on the one side and China on the other, but with communists unseated in France and Italy the non-communists Europe had apparently been drawn closer together in the expectation of help under the Marshall programme and a violent anti-communist drive was enveloping almost the whole of the non-Russian world. The only possible gap in the anti-communist world was in the South-East Asian borders of Russia, which thanks to Anglo-American influence was in a chaotic state in the main. This effort at stabilization of authority had similarly to be taken recourse to by the Communists in Czechoslovakia, while Communists all over the world—switched over to jarring political activity and propaganda against the government of each country not dominated by Communists. These in addition to the natural labour troubles in the bankrupt countries and even democratic movements in countries under intrinsically authoritarian regimes as in Latin America seemed in their turn to strengthen the hands of the USA. And she with her fingers on the strings of her bulging purse, out of which she was promising all the small coins to the beggars, not only directed precautions against "un-American activities" in Europe, Asia and America but also hoodwinked the much-needed economic reforms in the old world. At one time we had to view the miserable spectacle of Governments of the majority of the countries of the world raising a chorus of anti-communism at the cue from the USA, as is the wont of Communists following the lead of Kremlin. In the regions less amenable to such pressure tactics, the USA in association with Britain sowed seeds of discord to keep them engaged with themselves. On Truman's own admission, however, communism can thrive only among economically distressed people. But all that the USA was now prepared for, was a rearmament including the under-writing of the defence programmes of a non-Communist Eur-America and providing arms and military training to countries, specially on the borders of Russia, in exchange of military bases and fuel. In addition she promised to keep bankrupt Western Europe on doles for a number of years. The study of the different countries which are in difficulty shows, however, that to few is her peace of Soviet peace acceptable. For few have the possibilities of such vast development like the American or the USSR to stay on full fledged capitalism, while very few indeed want as yet to go in for a choked political democracy. Solution is therefore sought mostly in between dollar imperialism and Kremlin behests.

Europe —Europe is now not only in trouble for herself due to her fall, but has given the boldest relief to the ideological tug-of-war. The main step for the UN deadlock—for Germany is the real bone of contention—she has during the year sent forth a sinister evil-looking smoke, not all of her own making. Standing atop the wall erected on divided Germany, each of the extremists wants the other to show his fangs, while the people of Europe have their tattered hands and feet tied completely to the barometer of reaction.

At one end is Eastern Europe which has been the pawn for centuries at the hands of power-mongers and capitalists. She has not only switched full steam ahead towards complete independence from capital and vested interests but under the direction of Russia is ever-ready to sniff something wrong at almost any connection with the capitalist countries. Therefore the closing of the blue Danube to the non-riparian states is another nail strengthening the wall against capitalism. While trade connections on equal terms are accepted by the Eastern European countries, Russia herself does not just like it that there should be any hobnobbing with capital. This rub led to the Tito-Stalin flare out. This wedge seemingly driven by Tito's Yugoslavia in the compactness of Eastern Europe is the first impact of nationalism on the mother country of communism. But this should not give any more than a thin satisfaction to the anti-Soviet bloc, for in spite of the correctness of his stand, Tito knows that he cannot continue for long against the compound economic and political pressure from the countries around him and will have to fall in line, if at his convenience.

Over on the other side of Europe, Britain is the only country that is going ahead with a bit of determination and clear thinking to stem the tide of communism at the base. Faced with the grim prospect of losing all her colonies in near future, she is nationalising the sources of national income and socialising the national services. But the other states have neither the strength to displease the USA nor have sufficient unanimity at home to try for anything like that. So in the expectation of US doles under the European Recovery Plan, most of them are indulging in the experiments without being able to commit to any full-fledged plan. Metropolitan France, now a shadow of her former self, has characteristically voted down four cabinets during a year. It is due to the fear of Gaullist fascism, not to any effective action to help confidence that M. Queuille continues to retain his post. The state of affairs in Italy is similar, if not worse.

It is interesting, however, that while the USA is hobnobbing with fascist Spain on the matter of the defence of Western Europe in exchange of a good number of military bases, in her consideration Finland has, by reason of her pact of military assistance and friendship with the Soviet this year, turned red and passed behind the iron curtain. On the other hand, it is surely to obviate the British and French dislike of rubbing shoulders with France that the Spanish oligarchy, under somebody's inspiration, held a regimented municipal election for the first time and seriously pondered over the prospects of a monarchical regime under their control. But Finland, by reason of the proximity of her borders with Russia, had done something more to deserve the friendship of the so-called democrats when she dismissed the two Communist ministers in her cabinet from what democracy considers important portfolios in the hands of communists.

It is no wonder that, in such an atmosphere of divided peace, sedate Austria and partitioned Germany should be straining their eyes on the horizon in the hope of establishing unified and independent states. What is strange, however, is that the USA threw to the four winds the principles of a Roosevelt to help a corrupt regime in Greece to make the country a veritable pool of blood and sit tight against the reparation agreements regarding Austria and Germany. She has gone to the extent of stopping the de-nazification programme and is keeping intact the war potential of Germany. However much Britain and France might be in need of help from USA and although she is bearing the major part of the occupation costs, they do not feel much comfortable in respect of US policy over Germany and her scant respect to the points of view of the now fallen powers. It has also been brought home to the USA that Western Europe would much more readily follow Britain's lead in seeking better terms from the USA.

Africa & the Middle East—While the anti-Soviet bloc can find satisfaction in the strong anti-communistic policy of the Governments of this region, the increasing break of tribal ties and restlessness against foreign domination are discernable here.

In the dark continent, neither France nor Britain is quite happy with the progress of affairs, while both seem to look with lingering eyes at former Italian colonies. The Accra disturbances of March, 1948 and the not very magnanimous reforms immediately proposed by the enquiry commission raises doubts about the future of the Colonial Development Corporation. Similarly there was the anti-Italian riots at Mogadishu in February. Tripoli under a state of emergency proclaimed by the British military administration is also a pointer to the fact. Nor are the French find it easy to continue the stranglehold on their possessions without use of bullets off and on, although they have followed the footsteps of Britain in holding elections to the first parliament in Algeria under a restricted and communal franchise in which both the nationalist parties took part. Of great significance too is the increasing co-operation of the African National Congress with the Indians in South Africa in spite of the disruptive tactics of the new regime under Dr. Malan who wants to put the clock back and increase 'the white man's burden'. In the face of such a temper throughout the continent, and contrary to the wishes of the Egyptians and the majority of the Sudanese, Britain seeks to continue the deadlock about Sudan in the hope of better relations with the Arab world in near future. So Britain has unilaterally gone ahead with a trickle of administrative reforms in the Sudan to support the separatists while another Foreign Minister has had to resign in Egypt on a difference of opinion on the Prime Minister's rejection of the British proposals.

The proclamation of the state of Israel on May 14, 1948 at the end of British mandate of Palestine is indeed an event of great importance for the whole of the Middle East. For throughout this area a dangerous game of power politics has been in progress and Britain has sought to route wealthy America in the diplomacy of oil while keeping Russia persistently at bay. Losing much of her oil interests to the USA during the war, Britain's need was to recover the lost ground in this world's largest store-house of oil on the goodwill of her Arab pensioners while continuing to have the gratefulness of the Jews as the first sponsor of a Jewish state. So after she had raised the big gun-powder block of religious animosity, she smartly washed her hands off. The USA on the other hand, bent on satisfying her increasing need of more oil, was finding it difficult to gain foothold in this zone of British influence. She therefore decided to close in as the protector to the coming Jewish state. Both England and America want to ward off any extension of Soviet influence in this potentially rich area. Faced with the same difficulties as of the USA, Russia chose to walk abreast with the USA in this solitary world problem. Now, Britain's ill-concealed support of a Jewish state added the anti-British to the anti-American feelings throughout the Arab world at the beginning of the year. Naturally, therefore, M. Saleh Jabr had to go down with his cabinet for the fault of initialing the revised Anglo-Iraqi treaty which like the earlier one granted military and air bases to Britain. In anticipation of a similar situation, M. Tewfik Pasha, the Transjordan Prime Minister, felt constrained to announce the coming Anglo-Transjordan Treaty revision talks with the purpose of deleting the military clauses of the former agreement. In spite of the popular ill-feeling against her, however, Britain continued to enjoy the confidence of the ruling authorities. That is why bans on the left-wing forces were soon clamped in all these countries. It was in such an atmosphere that Britain announced the intention of ending the Palestine mandate against continued US request, while on the other side the British-trained and British-armed Arab troops got ready to swoop down on Palestine from all sides before the evacuation of the British forces. From its very inception therefore, the Jewish state was attacked on all sides, not excluding even the Egyptian borders, and that in spite of the immediate *de facto* recognition by the USA and then by Russia and the Eastern European states. Perturbed no doubt at the Russian blessings, the USA was bound to work for an immediate cease-fire to allow a breathing time to the infant state. And when the cease-fire came, she effectively stopped Russia from stealing into Palestine as an observer. In the meantime, Arab feelings ran high against America although the Palestine partition plan had been shelved in the UN at the instance of a perplexed USA and the Jews rightfully thought that Britain had let them down at the crucial moment. For the USA, the way out now was to create dissension and rivalry in the Arab group, working jointly under the British-sponsored Arab League. This rivalry between the Arab States was skillfully enginered; so we find quarrel between Transjordan, Egypt which threatened the break-up of Arab League. Meanwhile the Jews gathered strength with the supply of armaments from all over the world, in which again Russia and Eastern Europe have been reported to have played a good part. With the increasing intensity of Jewish attacks after each intermittent cease-fire, Arabs have recognised that the Jewish State has come to stay. This is jeopardising the British interest more than ever, although she continues to play the protector to the Arabs. In the race for Israeli affections, on the other hand, she has fallen far behind, while the USA faces the prospect of Russia stealing a march on her.

On the borders of Russia, however, the dollar has had a more easy going in the confirmed anti-Soviet Turkey and the nimble palace oligarchy of Iran. Of these Turkey feels that she has nothing to lose by the acceptance of US influence if she can further militarise herself to guard her frontiers with the Soviet and her sovereignty over the Dardanelles. For that she is ready to blind her eyes to the increasing distress of the people with the white-washing introdudction of a two-party system in the country. Iran is similarly afraid of Soviet penetration although not very willing to allow her resources to be exploited by any foreign power. M. Sultaneh was no doubt effectively chastised by the people for his bid to sell the country to the USA. But Iran continues to be the hot bed of intrigues between the forces favouring Britain and thse favouring the USA. At the height of the Anglo-American rivalry for new oil concessions, two cabinets have fallen during the year and Russia continues to remind Iran that any violation of the Soviet-Persian Pact of 1921 in the shape of new oil concessions to any foreigners other that the USSR in the border provinces would be taken as an expression of enmity to the USSR. It must however be mentioned that in Afghanisthan,—until recently habituated to carrying out the directives from Britain,—neither Russia nor the USA has secured any comfortable foothold as yet, although here the US efforts for infiltration are more obvious than any other.

South-East Asia & The Pacific Area—Progressively freeing herself from imperialistic stranglehold during the post-war period, this region has also during this year been tormented with seething troubles. And for much of the troubles, the good offices of the imperialists are responsible. It is of course granted that Afghanistan did at her own request put pressure on Pakistan for the return of the tribal territories which had been wrested from her by Britain. But Pakistan would not have had the temerity to continue an undeclared war on Kashmir and openly support the separatist communal oligarchy in Hyderabad without the connivance of and the supply of arms and ammunition by the 'bi-partisan' diplomats of Anglo-America, nor would have the Karens and other nationalities of Burma rebelled for the establishment of separate states without the instigation by foreign agents. Similarly the corrupt regime of Chiang could not have continued the bloody civil war without the supply of arms and money from Anglo-America, nor could have Franco-Dutch imperialists hoped to retain their ill-gotten possessions in Indo-China and Indonesia without American money and arms and the subtle advice from Britain, interested in Malaya and Singapore, to isolate the nationalists. Desirous of having this whole region under their over-all control till Europe regained her health, the Anglo-American block wants this region to be in near chaos and backwardness. And the red-bogey is always one of their gay pastimes, which they raise at the nationalistic upheavels and the socialistic programmes without which Asia, ridden for more than a century by blood-sucking imperialism, cannot be regenerated.

This was indeed a year of great crisis for India, and not less for Pakistan with a full-scale Indo-Pakistan war looming large in the horizon. The potent poison of communalism sown with care in the midst of our gullible masses had not only borne fruit in the shape of the biggest trans-border trek of people in the history of the world, but the greatest humanist and political leader of our times fell to the hands of reactionary fanaticism. India, however, gave their hopes the lie direct by solving the states' problem with wonderful speed and at the same time forcing communalism to a sharp retreat. In India fascist Portugal and tricky France are worried about their possessions in India which they are trying hard to rule with force or by financing reaction. Similarly, the fear of the coming military defeat in Kashmir and her own increasing financial and political difficulties made Pakistan, to accept a cease-fire in Kashmir and make friends with India even at the cost of a big lump of the Kashmir territory. Every one shall acknowledge that in dealing with Pakistan, India has been more magnanimous and restrained than would have been possible for almost any nation of the world. Thus came to end what was after all a fratricidal strife which was draining the treasuries of both India and Pakistan. Near Indian borderland, the Nepalese people are fast rising from their torpor to seek democratic government which the ruling clique. The new dominion of Ceylon at the foot of India may at present seem to tie her defence with Britain by reason of the Anglo-Ceylonese treaty whose object is to keep intact the line of defence of the British colonies from the new base in East Africa to Singapore. With an increase in the stability and strength of India, however, and certainly with the liquidation of British power in Malaya which is thought to be imminent, Ceylon, it is expected, will more readily tie her defence with the friends in the region than with a distant country which has only recently reliquished what she could not control.

India's troubles, however, pale into insignificance in comparison with those of her eastern neighbours. Almost the whole tract of land to her east from the northern top in Korea to the southern tip including Indonesia is a big cauldron of raging fire. Beguiled Karens and the doctrinaire communists have made a mess of the affairs in independent Burma with the result that an well-intentioned and socialist government finds its authority limited nearly to the cities and that another national leader has fallen in the hands of an assassin. It is here that communist tactics have drawn a lurid picture which in effect strengthens reaction and the hands of global imperialism of capital. Imported head-hunters from Borneo in addition to the guns and aircraft of Britain have gone into action in Malaya against the people who want the country's resources for their own use and not for the planters, mine-owners, chieftains and rajas as under the so-called Federation of Malaya established at the beginning of the year. On the other land Pibul Songram regime in Siam seeks Anglo-American help against the feared communist onslaught. Few, however, pause to consider that it is to the interest of Britain's tin and rubber politics to cry 'red' to the legitimate trade union activities on behalf of a groaning mass of workers in Malaya and Singapore. The fear of communism have this year also been voiced by the French and Dutch imperialists who otherwise have taken leaves out of the British book of imperialism to divide the nationalists, and if possible sustain the forces of reaction at hand to bypass the others. It is interesting in this connection that while the French have not been able to better their military position in Indo-China against the Vietnam rebels even after two years of fight, they have failed to win even a Bao Dai over to their side and that with the help of a Gen. Xuan who has been proclaimed a traitor by Dr. Ho Chi Minh's government.

China is a remarkable pointer of the same content. Now, on doubt, the Anglo American money bags find themselves poorer by about three and a half billions of dollars of purchase money paid to the corrupt-to the-bone Kuomintang regime for removing the communist threat, while the fall of the regime is certainly imminent. Without complete popular support for ridding the country of all exploiters, native as well as foreign, the Chinese Peoples' Army could not have been flashing across the country, nor would have divisions of the Kuomintang army gone over to that side. The imperialists have therefore seen the writing on the wall as much clearly as to decide to throw down Chiang like a dirty rag. Besides the shadow of communism was already lengthening in what had heretofore been the eastern provinces of China, now independent states. With a red China at the top,—not red enough though as yet by the communist bible—the prospects of foreign domination of Asia are bleak indeed. This has made Eur-America begin arguing among themselves whether Mao Tse Tung will not be a giant Tito and whether in that case China with a more or less three times the population of Russia would cloud the importance of Russia.

We find the same game of power politics in Korea. The country is divided into two irreconcilable camps. To the north is the People's Republic of North Korea set up by the Russians and dominated by the communists. To the south is the Republic of Korea. It is officially recognised by the United Nations and it can be safely said that it is a U.S. dominated area supported by U.S. troops and money. In these two areas bitter game of power politics are going on between these two nations. So it is extremely doubtful if Korea will achieve unity and independence so long as Russia and western powers pursue mutually incompatible politics.

As in Europe too, the USA seems to be favouring her former enemy country as the bastion against communist influence. Japan being under practically her sole control, due to the ineffectiveness of the Far Eastern Commission, the US efforts to stem the tide of communism should best be seen here. To that purpose surely, not only has legitimate trade union activities been shackled but the USA has recently backed out of the allied policy of de-cartelization of Japanese industries and dismantling of the industries which subscribe to the war potential of Japan. This has naturally met with prompt protest from the USSR as from UK, China and Australia. And about the much-talked-of democratisation of spirit it is sufficient to say that after the forced resignation of the Socialist coalition cabinet under Tetsu Katayama in 1947, Japanese politics has been steadily receding back to the hands of the conservative politicians who had been the supporters of the former militarist regime. In that context the frequent changes in the cabinet bringing in or throwing out Shigeru Yoshida or Hitoshi Ashida can be taken to mean only similar difference as between M. Souphulis and M. Tsaldaris in Greece.

The United Nations—Turning to the world organisation, we find it naturally to be the exact replica of the world outside with the same back-stage manoeuvres and the same love of dead-locks. With the increase in the tension of the global crisis, almost no problem of importance that has once entered it has left the UN with a solution in accordance with propriety or with the principles of the UN Charter. Despite the successful work of the *ad hoc* commissions, with a bill of Human Rights among them, even the few pious resolutions passed at the instance of the foolish hopefuls, and that in the most innocuous forms, have been rendered ineffective by the unwilling participation of those whose voice should influence the errant members. And when after all voting is exercised not on the merit of a question but as led by a whip under a rigid party system, when the UN principles serve as useful cliches in the hands of reckless politicians, when settlement according to propriety is the last thing wanted, when it is a platform for power politics to bring pressure to bear on those who want, independently of the big ones, to stand for justice and when it is used for making propaganda speeches 'to the world'- people may well be consoled by M. Trygve Lie's "at least we have kept the peace", which means that neither has another full-scale world war broken out, nor are any of the members except South Africa willing to break the UN down. But then, it hangs on like a tattered garment without any shred of the prestige that should pertain to a world organisation. The whole fault of it falls naturally on three of the members of the Security Council (China and France excepted) whose unanimity is the most important of the accepted bases on which the UN was founded. The politics of permanent votes has reduced many of the resolutions to a farce. The USA with its permanent majority in association with Britain and the six vote opposition of the Russian group have been broken only a few times during the year. And one of the most interesting cross-overs occurred on the matter of Palestine, Britain showing on one occasion that Britain has a large following which contributes greatly to the majority of the US. It is no wonder therefore that the admission of new members should be a problem of vast importance to both the groups and that each should object to any increase in the other group. It can not be said at this stage of how much help would be the four-power resolution passed this year by the political committee (33 to 6 votes with 4 abstentions) for the limitation of veto from 30 or more procedural subjects laid down and try to have unanimity.

While, however, peace has not been broken on a world scale, undeclared wars have been in progress during the year, the main trouble-spots being Greece, Palestine, Kashmir, Malaya, Indo-China, Indonesia and China to which in all propriety may be added Berlin or for that matter the whole of Germany. On Greece and China the UN has failed to take notice of the participation of US military staff with their armaments in planning operations, while accusing the neighbours of Greece and maintaining a stiff-lipped silence in the case of 'big power' China. With regard to Malaya and Indo-China it has behaved as though it is not aware of the troubles, while in both these cases in addition to Indonesia it has shown its readiness to under-write imperialism, unless, unluckily for it, matters came ahead to a serious crisis. In Palestine, it has clumsily proved its unwillingness to go objectively into the issue till a full-dress war was on progress. As to Kashmir, it has talked of all affairs other than Kashmir, the cease-fire at the end of the year going to the credit of the Indian and Pakistan governments than honouring the UN. Similarly if peace comes soon in Palestine, that will be due to the earnest desire for peace by Irael and the Arab States, or better the incapacity of the Arabs to fight out the issue.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA'S POLICIES AND DECLARATIONS, 1948

INDUSTRIAL POLICY OF THE GOVERNMENT

The following are the main points from the Government of India's resolution on Industrial Policy issued in 1948:—

The State could contribute more quickly to the increase of national wealth by expanding its present activities wherever it is already operating and by concentrating on new units of production in other fields, rather than on acquiring and running existing units. Meanwhile, private enterprise properly directed and regulated, has a valuable role to play.

On these considerations, Government have decided that manufacture of arms and ammunitions, the production and control of atomic energy, and the ownership and management of railway transport should be the exclusive monopoly of the Central Government. Further in any emergency, the Government would always have the power to take over any industry vital for national defence. In the case of following industries, the State which include Central, Provincial and State governments and other Public Authorities—will be exclusively responsible for the establishment of new undertakings, except where, in the national interest, the State itself finds it necessary to secure the co-operation of private enterprise subject to such control and regulation as the Central Government may prescribe—(1) Coal, (2) Iron and steel, (3) Aircraft manufacture, (4) Ship building, (5) manufacture of telephone, telegraph and wireless apparatus, excluding radio receiving sets, (6) mineral oils.

Regarding private enterprise, government have decided to let existing undertaking in these fields develop for a period of ten years during which they will be allowed all facilities for efficient working and reasonable expansion. At the end of this period, whole matter will be reviewed and a decision taken in the light of circumstances obtaining at the time. If it is decided that the State should acquire any unit, the fundamental rights guaranteed by the constitution will be observed and compensation will be awarded on a fair and equitable basis.

Management of State enterprise will, as a rule, be through the medium of public corporations under the statutory control of the Central Government.

There are certain basic industries of importance apart from those mentioned above, the planning and regulation of which by Central Government is necessary in the national interest. The following industries will be the subjects of central regulation and control—(1) Salt, (2) Automobiles and tractors, (3) Prime movers, (4) Electric Engineering, (5) other heavy machinery, (6) machine tools, (7) Heavy Chemicals, fertilizers and pharmaceuticals and drugs, (8) Electro-Chemical Industries, (9) Non-ferrous metals, (10) Sugar, (11) Paper and newsprint, (12) Air and Sea Transport, (13) Minerals, (14) Industries related to the defence etc.

Cottage Industries —The Government accepts the proposal for the establishment of a Cottage Industries Board and propose to create suitable machinery to implement it. A cottage and small Industries Directorate will also be set up within the Directorate General of Industries and

Supplies. One of the main objectives will be to give a distinctly co-operative bias to this field of industry.

Labour's Share in the Profit of Production—In order to secure the maximum increase in production, the Government accepts the following resolution of the Industrial Conference held in 1947:—

"This system of remuneration to capital as well as labour must be so devised that while, in the interests of the consumers and primary producers, excessive profits should be prevented by suitable methods of taxation and otherwise, both will share the product of their common effort, after making provision for payment of fair wages to labour, a fair return on capital employed in the industry and reasonable reserves for the maintenance and expansion of the undertaking.

Government considers that labour's share of profits should be on the sliding scales normally varying with production. They propose, in addition to over-all regulation of industry by the State, to establish machinery for advising on fair wages, fair remuneration for capital and conditions of labour. They will also take steps to associate labour in all matters concerning industrial production. The machinery will be (1) Central Advisory Council, (2) Provincial Advisory Boards, (3) Works Committees and Production Committees attached to each major industrial establishments.

Foreign Capital—While participation of foreign capital and enterprise will be of value for industrial technique and knowledge, the foreign participation will be carefully regulated in the national interest. Suitable legislation will be introduced for this purpose. The law will provide that as a rule, the major interest in the ownership should always be in Indian hands.

FOOD-GRAINS POLICY COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATIONS

The main recommendations of the final report of the Foodgrains Policy Committee are as follows: The Committee was set up by the Government of India in September 1947 to examine the possibilities and to recommend measures for securing a definite increase in the food production within the country in the next five years.

"With a view to removing the constant threat of scarcity, famine and helpless dependence on imports to which the country is exposed at present, it must set before it the task of increasing the foodgrains production annually by 10 million tons within the shortest possible time.

Large-scale multi-purpose projects to provide assured irrigation, intensive efforts to raise the production from the soil already under cultivation by increased use of water, manure and improved seeds and the development of culturable waste lands must be an integral part of a comprehensive food production policy for the immediate future.

To put this plan into effective operation, it will be necessary to establish a Central Board of Agricultural Planning, to set up Provincial Board of Agriculture and an autonomous Central Land Reclamation Organisation with a capital of Rs. 500 million.

GOVERNMENT MEASURES TO CHECK INFLATION

Four-Pronged Drive—The Government of India have decided to launch a four-pronged attack on inflation. Announcing this a Press Communique issued on October 4, 1948, said:—

The Government's policy in dealing with this problem is dictated by certain broad considerations. The first is to take all possible steps to keep the Government expenditure as low as possible consistent with efficiency, and to increase revenue by all available means. The second is to make a concerted effort immediately to ensure that there is no further rise in prices and the cost of living. The third is so to order future policy as to secure, in the shortest possible time, a progressive reduction in prices to reasonable levels and the supply of an increasing volume of goods and services. Lastly wherever possible, every endeavour should be made to curtail the purchasing power in the hands of the community and to prevent any addition thereto.

Balanced Budgets—In the field of Government expenditure it has been decided that the budgetary gap between revenue and expenditure going this year should be reduced as far as possible both by the Provinces and the Centre and that for next year every effort should be made to provide surplus budgets. All avoidable expenditure will forthwith be postponed and all economies consistent with the maintenance of efficient administration will be enforced. It is not the Government's intention to hold up development but in the present crisis it is absolutely vital to avoid all unproductive expenditure.

A Committee of the Cabinet has been set up to carry out an urgent review of all development plans both Central and Provincial with a view to determine the relative priority of accepted schemes so that expenditure on such of them as are not productive or could be postponed or slowed down, without detriment to the national welfare, might be deferred or curtailed. Provincial Governments have also been warned that in present circumstances they can expect no financial assistance from the Centre in the implementation of their plans for the abolition of zamindari or for prohibition, and that in trying to finance the cost of these schemes they should see that the Centre's borrowing programme is not affected.

Provincial Governments are also being advised to strengthen their finances by the levy of an agricultural income-tax where it is not now levied. The progress of the bill for levying an Estate Duty, the entire proceeds of which will go to the Provinces and which is now before the Central Legislature, will also be expedited.

As regards prices, the public are aware that the policy of decontrol adopted last December has recently been reviewed and the revised policy regarding control of foodgrains and textiles has been announced. Government hope to secure by the revised policy an equitable distribution of food-grains and cloth at reasonable prices well below the existing levels. When the revised policy comes into full operation there should be a marked decline in the present level of prices. Government has also under consideration the question of securing a reduction in the price of sugar and better distribution of other essential commodities like kerosene, iron, steel and cement and they hope to be in a position shortly to announce their policy.

Small Savings Campaign—One of the main causes of the present crisis is the existence in the hands of large sections of the community of purchasing power far in excess of the available supply of goods resulting in a progressive increase in prices. The position will naturally improve if the public invest more in Government loans and in savings schemes.

In order to stimulate investments Government propose, in co-operation with the Provincial Governments and States, to intensify the campaign for small savings. They have also decided to afford wider facilities for investments by the small investor in post offices. The maximum permissible limit for investments in Postal Savings Banks will be raised from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 and in National Savings Certificates from Rs. 15,000 to 25,000. Government have also decided to issue Treasury Deposit Receipts on favourable terms for 6, 9 and 12 months to cater for institutional investors seeking short-term investments and details will be announced shortly by the Reserve Bank.

Stimulating Production.—In the field of industrial production Government have come to the conclusion that in the present circumstances some special steps should be taken to stimulate production, and they have therefore decided to grant the following concessions. Firstly, the present rules regulating allowance of depreciation on plant and machinery for income-tax purposes will be liberalised. Secondly, new industrial undertakings will be exempted from income-tax for a specified period. Thirdly, raw materials and plant and machinery imported into the country for industrial purposes will be granted a relief in respect of customs duty, to the extent that this may be practicable without injury to Indian manufacturers of similar goods. Details of the concessions will be published shortly.

Government attach the utmost importance to increasing the financial resources available for industrial development and at the same time preventing any addition to existing purchasing power, as an essential preliminary to further measures to check inflation. As a first step in this direction some form of limitation of dividends is necessary, and it has been decided that for public companies the amount distributed as dividend should not exceed the average of the two years ending with the 31st March 1948 or 6% on paid-up capital whichever is higher. It has also been decided to postpone the repayment of the Excess Profits Tax deposits and of refundable E. P. T. for a further period of 3 years. Refunds will however be allowed for financing purchases of capital equipment.

Industrial Disputes—Government also propose to take action to secure in consultation with the Reserve Bank that the power recently conferred on the Reserve Bank to regulate the grant of advances by banks should be utilised to prevent speculation in commodities.

The Central Government are convinced of the imperative need for uniformity in legislation regarding industrial disputes and its application Divergent policy and uncoordinated action in this matter can result in embarrassing repercussions on the economy of the country at the present juncture. Alongside, therefore, of Government's declared policy in this matter, they intend to take measures by legislation and otherwise to ensure that uniform principles will be adopted, under the overall control of the Central Government, in the reference of disputes to adjudication, and the provision for the review of awards by a statutory authority.

LINGUISTIC PROVINCES COMMISSION'S REPORT

Below is given a summary of the Commission's report:—

While recognizing that there is a sincere and strong demand for the creation of these provinces and that its non-fulfilment may lead to much disappointment, the Commission think that an emergency exists in this country which would not justify acceding to the demand at present. They say that the first and last need of India at the present moment is that it should be made a nation. The Constitution, which is now being forged for India, as also all the multifarious problems which clamour for immediate solution have to be considered in relation to this paramount necessity. Everything which helps the growth of nationalism has to go forward, and everything which throws obstacles in its way has to be rejected or should stand over.

"'We have applied this test', say the Commission 'to linguistic provinces, and, judged by this test, they fail and cannot be supported. If once the principle is recognised, it will set the ball rolling for the disintegration of the entire country."

Changed Circumstances—The report begins by describing the proposed linguistic provinces of Andhra, Kerala, Karnataka, and Maharashtra. It refers to the Congress declarations since 1921 in favour of linguistic provinces but it points out that the circumstances now are very different, and the pledges can only be redeemed in the context of present-day India. It enumerates the conditions necessary before an area can be formed into a province, *e.g.*, geographical contiguity, financial self-sufficiency, capacity for future development, and the consent of the people affected.

The claim for the linguistic provinces is based on two alternative grounds:—

(1) That the linguistic groups are subnations and, as such, contracting parties to the Constitution from which the Federation and the Centre derive their existence and power, and alternatively.

(2) That the existing provinces are unwieldy, heterogeneous, and administratively inconvenient, particularly in the fields of education, legislatures, etc.

The points against the formation of linguistic provinces are the intolerance which they breed against the minority speaking a different language in the same province, the parochial patriotism which they will emphasise, and the bitterness which will be caused by the marking-off the boundaries, particularly with reference to the cities of Madras and Bombay.

There are some who want these provinces to be immediately formed, saying that the demand has got deep down into the masses and its postponement is creating bitterness, impatience and frustration, and that the country cannot settle down to constructive work.

As against this, others say that the country is not yet free from dangers of external aggression, that it is in the grip of an economic crisis of great magnitude, that the integration of Indian States has not yet been completed, that the Government is pre-occupied with more urgent problems, and that the country cannot at this moment bear the financial and administrative strain which these new provinces will put upon it.

The report then goes on to describe the boundaries of these four provinces, and points out the difficulties of dealing with border districts which are not unilingual but bilingual. It says that it is not practicable to form Malabar district into a province which would be possible if it could unite with Travancore and Cochin.

Similarly, the union of Karnataka with Mysore would be in the the interests both of Karnataka and Mysore, which would gain access to the sea.

Maharashtra, it is said, is a late-comer in the field, and opinion in the Marathi-speaking districts of C. P. and Berar has not yet sufficiently crystallized for any recommendation to be made.

Bombay and Madras—The members of the Commission think that these cities are not populated exclusively or even largely by speakers of any one language; that they are in every sense multi-lingual; that they have developed a cosmopolitan life of their own and are more or less of all-India importance. The Commission think that it would be not right to include these cities in any one unilingual province and that they deserve special treatment in their own interest and of India as a whole.

Financial and Administrative Problem—It is pointed out that the creation of the six new provinces with their full-fledged machinery of Government would entail heavy expenditure which would fall on the taxpayer. Besides, very heavy expenditure would be incurred on the building of the six new capitals, which would be unfortunate at a time when the problem of housing refugees is facinng us. It would also worsen the inflation situation. There is already a strain on the administrative agency of the various provinces, and there will be a further tax on it by the creation of the new provinces. A new minority problem would come into existence; and the allocation of boundaries is sure to leave some bitterness behind. The new provinces will all be deficit—some more, some less, and hardly any of them would be able to function any better than a mere Police State.

The view of the Commission is that linguistic provinces will have a sub-national bias and will militate against the welding of India into one nation. "If the intention were to create sub-nations in India, there could not be a better way of doing it than by creating linguistic provinces.' It is further pointed out that, as a result of historical circumstances, many of the communities speaking the same languauge have become separated and included in different administration, and the two groups have developed in different directions and are not now very eager to combine. Lastly, it is said that the formation of linguistic provinces is sure to lead to similar demands from other parts of India, and already some such demands have been passed. 'Indian Nationalism,' they say is deeply wedded to its regional languages; Indian patriotism is aggressively attached to its provincial frontiers.

If India is to survive, Indian nationalism and patriotism will have to sacrifice some of its cherished sentiments in the larger interests of the country. Till nationalism has acquired sufficient strength to permit the formation of autonomous provinces, the true nature and function of a province under our Constitution should be that of an administrative unit functioning under delegated authority from the Centre and subject to the Centre's over-riding powers in regard to its territory, its existence, and its functions. These powers are required to form new provinces and to mitigate the rigour of government by linguistic majorities, to prevent a breakdown of the administration on account of disputes amongst linguistic groups, to check fissiparous tendencies and strengthen national feeling, and above all to build up an Indian nation.

Mistaken View.—In another place the Commission remark: "It is said that by being put in a linguistic province, each linguistic group will be happier and stronger and will be able to develop according to its genius, and a tronger group will be able to serve India better and consequently will be a better nationalist. We are convinced that this is a mistaken view.

The emotional response, which the sub-national sentiment will receive from a linguistic province, will aways be greater than the one received by the national sentiment. Nationalism and sub-nationalism are two emotional experiences which grow at the expense of each other. In a linguistic province sub-nationalism will always be the dominant force and will always evoke greater emotional response; and, in a conflict between the two, the nascent nationalism is sure to lose ground and will ultimately be submerged."

The Commission go on to say that after some time, when the future of Indian States has been more clearly determined and when the Indian nationality is well established, some of the existing provinces should be reformed. But they make it quite clear that such re-formation shall not be based upon linguistic considerations, but rather upon administrative convenience. The Commission are emphatic that the present is not the time for this redistribution of provinces when there are more urgent problems staring the country in the face, *e.g.*, defence, refugees, inflation, production, food, etc.

The Commission are impressed with the view which has been expressed before them that the Constitution of India should provide for a strong Centre with residuary and over-riding powers, and that a common national language should be introduced throughout the country.

At the same time, the Commission recognise that, in all those provinces, there are serious administrative problems. There are clashes and conflicts such as those between Telugus and Tamils in the Government of Madras, and there is the feeling in Malabar and Karnataka that their needs do not receive adequate attention at the hands of the headquarters Governments in far-away Madras and Bombay.

The Commission think that many of these grievances are genuine, and the Government of India should devise means to allay them at once.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

The Government of India have defined their policy regarding the medium of instruction in educational institutions. A Resolution published in the *Gazette of India* dated August 14, 1948, says:—

The principle that a child should be instructed in the early stage of his education through the medium of the mother tongue has been accepted by the Government. All educationists agree that any departure from this principle is bound to be harmful to the child and therefore to the interests of the society.

GSL

Numerous Dialects—Unfortunately the application of this educationally sound principle in practice raises some difficulties. One question is what is to be considered as the mother tongue through which education has to be imparted. As is well known, in every region, Province and State in India, a number of dialects are spoken. Children learn dialects at home, are they to be all adopted as media of education? Unfortunately their number is large and most of them are without literature and therefore, without necessary pabulum to nourish education. There are, however, about a dozen languages more or less developed, which possess literatures and which seem to be marked out to become such media.

Multi-Lingual Provinces—Here a second difficulty arises. Although in some Provinces one of these languages is predominant, in others speakers of two, three or four of them live together, and there is hardly a Province in which besides, a principal language there are not considerable number of inhabitants speaking other languages.

In the Madras Province four principal languages are used, viz., Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam and Kanarese and in the city of Madras there are numerous speakers of both Telugu and Tamil. Similarly in the Bombay Province there are Marathi, Gujerati, and Kanarese speaking people, and in the city of Bombay a mixed population of Marathi, Gujerati, Urdu and Hindi speakers. In Bihar and U. P. there are certain districts and cities where along with Hindi, Bengali is spoken by many. Calcutta again is a sort of a cosmopolitan town with a mixed population speaking a number of languages. In Orissa, Oriya is the main language but in some parts Telugu is used. The Central Provinces have large areas of Marathi, and Hindi speaking intabitants. Nagpur is a city of mixed speakers of Hindi and Marathi. East Punjab has two languages—Hindi and Punjabi.

Conditions like these make it impossible for any State or Province to adopt any single language as the medium of instruction. An attempt to adopt one language in a Province where groups of people speaking different languages reside and to impose it on all is bound to lead to discontent and bitterness. It will affect inter-Provincial relations and set up vicious circles of retaliation. Provincialism will grow and Indian nationalism will suffer.

The history of the European countries is a warning. England sought to impose English on Ireland, Germany, German on Poles, Eastern European countries their particular languages on pockets of inhabitants speaking foreign languages. In every case the results have been disastrous.

Mother Tongue—In the case of India there does not exist any justification for adopting a policy which Europeans followed to their discomfiture. All Provincial languages are Indian languages and there is little reason why any Province in India should seek to deprive children inhabiting that Province of their fundamental right to receive education through the medium of the mother tongue.

It is obvious that if a Province has adopted any particular language as the language of administration, it will be to the interest of those whose mother tongue is different to learn it in order to claim participation in the life and privileges of the people of the Province.

The principle of teaching through the mother tongue then is of general application, but practical considerations suggest two limitations.

In the first place the principle applies mainly to the first stage of education, *i.e.*, the stage of compulsory primary education, or to the group of children at the junior basic stage from the ages of 6 to 11, for the reason that at the stage of compulsory education, children should not be forced to study a language which is not their mother tongue. In the higher stages after the junior basic, it will be necessary for pupils to learn the language of the Province.

Secondly, employment of the mother tongue for the education of the children whose numbers are extremely small will create administrative and financial difficulties....Hence it is desirable that a minimum number should be fixed for the use of their language. The Provincial or State Government should not only refrain from forcing any particular language on such groups but should place the same facilities of education at their disposal as it does for the other children.

The Government of India is of opinion that in the larger interests of the country, it is desirable that the policy enunciated above should be followed by all Provincial and State Governments.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN UNIVERSITIES

The Government of India have accepted the recommendations of the Committee on Medium of Instruction and are of the view that in the interest of national education, these recommendations should be given effect to immediately.

The Committee on Medium of Instruction was appointed in accordance with the recommendation of the Central Advisory Board of Education at the meeting held in January 1948 and endorsed by the All-India Education Conference convened by the Hon'ble Minister for Education. The Committee consisted of Vice-Chancellors of all Indian Universities and a few specialists and met at Delhi on May 1-2, 1948 under the Chairmanship of Dr. Tara Chand, Secretary, Ministry of Education.

Federal Language and Script—After careful examination of the Committee's recommendations, the Ministry of Education have requested the Universities and Provincial Governments to replace English as the medium of instruction at the University stage by gradual stages and to adopt in its place the language of the State or Province or region as the medium of instruction and examination.

The Universities have also been asked to provide for a compulsory test in the federal language during their first degree course without prejudice to the result of the degree examination and for the teaching of the federal language to all students who wish to take it up as an optional subject. Regarding the federal language and its script, the Government of India will await the decision of the Constituent Assembly.

Place of English—In view of the considerations urged by the Committee, the Ministry have requested the Universities and Provincial Governments to take steps to see that during the transitional period, English—not as a literature but as a language—is continued as a compulsory subject in the higher courses.

The recommendations made by the Committee in regard to the preparation of text-books and scientific terminology are under the active consideration of the Ministry of Education in consultation with the various Ministries.

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The question of granting extra-territorial jurisdiction to the various Universities in order to help in the solution of the language problem of linguistic minorities within a Province or State has been referred to the Inter-University Board for examination and Government will come to a decision on this question on receipt of the Board's report.

The Committee's recommendation relating to the conduct of Federal Public Service Examinations through the language of a region has been referred to the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, for examination and action.

Provincial Governments, etc., as well as Universities have been requested to inform the Ministry of Education, Government of India, regarding the action taken or proposed to be taken by them to implement the recommendations of the Medium of Instruction Committee.

PAKISTAN

Pakistan—Dominion of Pakistan consists of two parts—*West Pakistan* and *East Pakistan.* West Pakistan consists of the provinces of West Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Sind and Baluchistan. Whilst East Pakistan consists of the province of East Bengal to which is attached Sylhet district formally part of Assam.

In addition to these provinces, the principal States which have acceded to Pakistan are the Rajputana State of *Bhawalpur,* Sind State of *Khairpur* and Baluch States of *Kalat* and *Las Bela* as well as *Chitral* and *Swat* State of the North-West Frontier.

The Goal of Pakistan Government—The Objectives Resolution accepted by the Pakistan Constituent Assembly in 1949, lays emphasis on the principles of democracy, freedom, equality, tolerance and justice, and says that these principles should be observed in the constitution as they have been enunciated by Islam.

The resolution envisages a federal form of government.

Boundary—West Pakistan is bounded on the west and north-west by Persia and Afghanistan, on the east and north-east by the Dominion of India and Kashmir State and on the south has a long coast line along the Arabian Sea. East Pakistan is almost surrounded by Indian territory except in the south-east where it has a frontier with Burma and in the south where it has a sea board on the Bay of Bengal.

Area & Size—The total area of Pakistan is 233,000 sq. miles, of which Western Pakistan has 179,000 sq. miles and Eastern Pakistan 54,000 sq. miles. The Western Pakistan is separated from Eastern Pakistan by 1,200 miles. Western Pakistan is nearly 900 miles in length and 200 miles in breadth. Eastern Pakistan is less than one-third of the Western Pakistan. Pakistan is only 15 per cent of the total area of India.

Two Pakistans—Pakistan was born under a great disability *i.e.,* two Pakistans—one in the east and other in the north-west without any compactness and corridor. Pakistan is the only State in the world whose two componant parts are widely separated. About 1,200 miles of Indian Union intervenes between the two States of Pakistan. The distance between two Pakistans by sea is 3,000 miles.

Population—The total population in Pakistan is nearly 65·6 millions. The average density of population is 317 per square miles. About 74 per cent of the people are Muslims. According to 1941 census Pakistan has 16·9 p.c. of the total Indian population including that of Indian States, while it possesses about 15 p.c. of the total Indian area. We have only 23·8 million people in Western Pakistan but over 41·8 in Eastern Pakistan making a total of nearly 65·6 millions. The density of Pakistan is 281 where as that of Indian Union is 245.

The density of population is very uneven. In East Bengal, the density of population is 775 per square mile, whereas it is only nine per square mile in Baluchistan.

Description of Provinces

West Punjab—Comprises the western part of the former Punjab province as defined by Sir Cyril Radcliffe's boundary award. Under the award, the districts attached to Pakistan are (*a*) Lahore division with Lahore, Gujranwala, Gurdaspur, Sheikpura and Sialkot as its main centres. (*b*) Rawalpindi division including Rawalpindi, Attock, Jhelum, Mianwali and Shahpur, (*c*) Multan division including Multan, Dera Ghazi Khan, Lyallpur, Montgomery and Muzaffargarh. The name "Punjab' now is appropriately applied to this province, as actually all the five rivers, Indus, Jhelum, Chenub, Ravi and Sutlej flow through this province.

North-West Frontier Province—was incorporated in Pakistan as a result of the referendum in July 1947, consists of the administered and tribal areas; the former with an area of 14,200 square miles. The province proper had a population of (1941 census) 3,038,067 of which 91 p.c. were Muslims, while tribal areas which include five states, the most important of which is Chitral had an estimated population in 1941 of 2,500,000.

Roughly, the North-West Frontier Province of India is the country lying north of Baluchistan between the Indus and the Durand boundary line of Afghanistan. With a total area of 39,276 square miles (greatest length 408 miles, greatest breadth 279 miles), it stretches to the north as far as the Hindu Kush, the "*Indian Caucasus*" range; from there a long, though not unbroken line of mountains running south forms a natural Pakistan-Afghan frontier until the Sulaiman Range shuts off the province from Baluchistan. The province falls into three distinct geographical sections: the cis-Indus district of Hazara; the "settled districts" of Peshawar, Mardan, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, lying between the Indus and the mountain range of the north and the wild, rugged, arid and stony country on the north and west between the settled districts and the Durand Line or the Pakistan-Afghan border.

The general impression of the Frontier province is a rugged, almost barren country of rock and shale and wild and forbidding highland glens interspersed here with a few forests, dotted there with well-irrigated dales. Communications are meagre. The system of light railways includes the main Rawalpindi-Peshawar line, which was extended in 1925, nine miles to Jamrud, at the entrance to the Khyber, and further extended 27 miles through the Khyber to Landi Khotal on the Afghan border. There are some 32 tunnels on the way, the longest being 1,400 ft.

There are also a few short-distance branch lines and a few strategic highway. One may, in rare exceptions, enjoy the luxury of alternative routes. To reach Dera Ismail Khan from Peshawar, for instance, one can make a 200-mile sun-scorched journey by *tonga via* Kohat and Bannu or a slow-winding railway journey *via* the Attock Bridge and then along the comparatively cooler left bank of the Indus.

The focal point of interest on the Frontier is, of course, the Khyber Pass—grim, unmoving, silent, sentinel over the most historic Pass in the history of the world.

Sind—which came into existence as a separate entity as a result of the division of the Bombay Presidency on April 1, 1936, has an area (excluding Khairpur State) of 48,136 sq. miles and a population (1941) of 4,535,000 of whom Muslim numbered 3,208,325. Sind coast lines are nearly 150 miles long. Large part of Sind belongs to Great Indian Desert.

Recent archæological discovery has given Sind an authentic title to priority as a metropolis of civilization. It was at Mohenjo Daro in the Larkana district of Sind where were first disclosed the relics of the great Indus valley culture which have opened a new chapter rivalling Sumaria in the origins of civilization.

In Sind climate is extreme, very hot in summer and cool in winter. This is due very largely to the absence of moisture or any other equalising influence. The dry sand absorbs heat rapidly during day time and radiates it as quickly during the night. The annual rainfall is only about 4 inches, monsoon being practically absent, owing to the absence of lateral mountain ranges to condense the moisture.

Sind depends for cultivation on irrigation from Indus. Wheat and barley are its chief crops. The most famous barrage is Lloyd Barrage.

Baluchistan—has a total area of 134,002 sq. miles and a population of 857,835 and comprises (*a*) Former British Baluchistan proper, (*b*) leased and tribal areas, (*c*) Baluchistan States covering 79,546 square miles of which Kalat and Las Bela are the most important. The Province is predominently Muslim. The climate is semi-desert or desert. The province is outside the influence of monsoon. It is a very dry plateau. The whole of Baluchistan form one natural region. Rainfall does not usually exceed 8 inches in a year. The density of population is the smallest of all provinces of India and Pakistan. The people belong to the three principal races,—Brahui, Baluchi and Pathan. Most of the territory of Baluchistan consists of four States Kalat, Las Bela, Ukaran and Makran, the latter nominally a feudatory of the former. Khan of Kalat exercises only a vague suzerainty. Outside these is Baluchistan proper.

An important railway runs from Sind through Bolan Pass to Quetta and Chaman. Afghanistan, Persia and N.-W. F. Tribal areas are close neighbours of Baluchistan.

East Pakistan—Consists of East Bengal and Sylhet district. The following districts of Bengal were awarded under Indian Independence Act—(*a*) Chittagong Division including Chittagong, Noakhali, Tippera as main centres, (*b*) Dacca Division including Dacca, Faridpur, Bakerganj and Mymensingh, (*c*) Presidency Division including Jessore, Khulna, (*d*) Rajshahi Division including Rajshahi, Rangpur, Pabna, Bogra, Dinajpur.

The area of East Bengal is 49,500 square miles and that of Sylhet district 4,600 square miles with a total population of 41,910,000 (39,140,000 in East Bengal and 2,740,000 in Sylhet).

East Bengal is a land of rivers with swamps creeks and riverfloods. Jute, rice, fish, tea, tobacco are its chief products. Nearly the whole of East Bengal is low flat country.

Religion—The dominant religion of Pakistan is Islam. 71 per cent of the population are Muslims. Hindu population in Western Pakistan is now very small after mass evacuation following the communal riots. In Eastern Pakistan Hindu population would be in the neighbourhood of 21 p.c. There is considerable Christian population in West Punjab.

Races—The three main races are Turko-Iranians, Mongolo-Dravidians and the Indo-Aryans. The Turko-Iranian type formed by a fusion of Turki and Persian elements in which former predominates, is represented by the Baloch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and N.-W. F. Province. The most numerous people of N.-W. F. P. are Pathans. Indo-Aryan type is found in West Punjab. Mongolo-Dravidian or Bengali type is found in East Bengal. Hindus and Muslims of Bengal belong to this type. This type is a mixture of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups.

Language—In the extreme north-west of Pakistan, *Baluchi, Pushtu* and *Brahui* languages are spoken. The principal language of N.-W. F. Province is Pushtu. The language of Sindh is *Sindhi* written in Perso-Arabic script. Urdu is the main language in West Punjab. Bengali is spoken by the 99 per cent of the people in East Bengal and Sylhet. Urdu has been prescribed as the official language of Pakistan Government.

Railways—Consequent on the partition of India, the old N.-W. Ry. and Bengal-Assam Railway have been divided, the portion of the N.-W. Railway falling within the area of Pakistan is now known by the old name, North-Western Railway. Similarly major portion of Assam-Bengal Railway falling within Eastern Pakistan is now known as *Eastern Bengal Railway*. *Jodhpur Railway* has also being divided, portion falling within Pakistan has gone to Pakistan railway system.

N. W. Railway runs from (1) Karachi to Peshawar *via* Multan and Lahore, (2) from Karachi to Peshawar *via* Dera Ghazi Khan and Mianwali, (3) from Karachi to Quetta. Jodhpur Railway goes from Hyderabad to Luni through Thar desert.

Animals—The most important animals of Pakistan are camels, horses, bullocks cows, goats and sheep. Sind cows are most famous for milk production. Cattle-breeding is the speciality of Sind.

Forests—Western Pakistan being a dryland has very few forests and forest products in consequence. In Eastern Pakistan, there are tidal forests, such as Sundarbans and a forest belt on Lushai and Chittagong Hill Tracts. Timber, bamboo, resin, gum, honey are the chief products of East Bengal forests. Pakistan has got only 9,999 sq. miles of reserved forests against 70,000 sq. miles of Indian Union.

Provinces—Pakistan provinces are East Bengal and Sylhet, West Punjab, N.W.F.P., Sind and Baluchistan. Pakistan consists of two wings separated by over a thousand miles.

Pakistan States—Bahawalpur, Khairpur, Dir, Swat, Chitral (of Frontier States), Kharan, Las Bela, Makran and Kalat all have acceded to Pakistan.

The area of Bhawalpur State is about 20,000 sq. miles, its population is two millions and its revenue is Rs. 4,23,00,000. Chitral State in the extreme north of Pakistan is about 8,000 sq. miles in area. Swat State lies to the north of Mardan district of N.-W. F. Province and to the west of Indus river. The annual estimated revenue of the Swat State is Rs. 52 lakhs.

Climate—Western Pakistan is dry and barren, while Eastern Pakistan is very wet and overgrown with vegetation. Dryness and heat with hot winds are the predominent features of the climate of Western Pakistan in summer, while chilly weather and some rains are there of winter. Eastern Pakistan on the other hand has more or less uniform temperatures ranging from 60°F to 70°F. The rainfall varies from 75 inches to about 160 inches, both S.-E. and N.-E. monsoons contributing their shares. Climate of Sind is of semi-desert type with very hot days with storms in summer and very cool in winter. Rainfall is only 3 to 9 inches.

Agriculture—Agriculture is the mainstay of the Dominion. Pakistan's position regarding agriculture is superior to India. The principal agricultural produce of Pakistan is rice, wheat, cotton, tobacco and jute. About 73 per cent of Indian jute is produced in Pakistan. Jute is more or less a monopoly of Eastern Pakistan and along with long and medium staple cottons of West Punjab and Sind, she occupies an enviable position. Main centre of Pakistan's rice production is East Bengal. Wheat is mainly produced in Western Zone. Pakistan is an agricultural surplus area which can feed its own people, export some wheat and rice and a great deal of valuable jute crop. Rice is the staple food of East Bengal, while wheat is the staple food of Western Pakistan.

Potentialities for agricultural development are also greater in Pakistan as compared with India.

But Pakistan has deficiency in the following agricultural products—millets, sugar, tea, coffee, for which she has to depend on Indian Union.

Wheat—Both West Punjab and Sind are surplus wheat areas. N. W. F. Province also produces quantity of wheat. The main production area is West Punjab.

Gram—Pakistan's share in gram production is about 15 p.c. of total Indian production.

Sugarcane—The sugarcane cultivation is mainly confined to West Punjab and East Bengal. But the production is small to meet the entire requirement.

Rice—East Bengal is the richest area in Pakistan for production of rice. Sind is also a surplus rice area.

Oil seeds—Main production of oil seeds are rape and linseed which are mainly grown in East Bengal.

Cotton—Comes from West Punjab and Sind and also a small quantity from N.-W. F. Province. Best variety of Indian cotton is produced in Pakistan (West Punjab and Sind). Pakistan produces one-third of the raw cotton of undivided India. The best quality of cotton produced in Pakistan are of long staple quality.

Jute—Share of Pakistan in the total raw jute production is estimated to be as high as 73 p.c. which is grown in East Bengal. As there are no jute mills in that area, the entire internal industrial demand is confined to the Indian Union.

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Tobacco—Pakistan's production of tobacco mainly comes from Eastern Pakistan such as Rangpur, Dinajpur and Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Wool—The N.W.F.P. produces 3,200,000 lbs. of wool annually and sheep found in Kagan yields wool which can be matched with the finest wool in the World; wool is also available in West Punjab, Sind and Baluchistan.

Tea—is produced mainly in Sylhet and Chittagong and Tippera areas of East Bengal and it has an exportable quantity of tea.

Irrigation.—Most of the irrigation works are located in West Punjab and Sind. Pakistan has 28 p.c. of the total irrigated area of undivided India though its share in cultivated area is only 13 p.c. Western Pakistan contains the world's best irrigation system. The West Punjab contains within itself the richest canal colonies of Asia. Sind has the Sukkar Barrage, the greatest irrigation system in the world. Due to extensive system of irrigation in Sind, the province has now become quite independent of monsoon. From the great Sukkur Barrage, several canals have been issued, such as Rohri Canal (208 miles long), new Eastern Nara Canal, two Khairpur Feeders and three new canals, such as North-West Canal, Central Rice Canal and Southern Dadu Canal. Sind which was a deficit province before its separation from Bombay in 1936 has become prosperous and self-supporting in recent years owing to unique system of irrigation.

The greatest irrigation work of West Punjab is the *Lower Chenab Canal* which has 2,437 miles of channels and irrigates more than two millions of land. Other canals are *Lower Jhelum Canal, Upper Jhelum Canal, Upper Chenab Canal.*

Minerals.—Pakistan is not rich in mineral resources excepting in chromite, gypsum and to some extent in petroleum. Baluchistan has considerable untapped mineral wealth. In Chitral, Pakistan has the subcontinent's only deposits of antimony.

Chromite—It is the only major mineral available in Pakistan (in Hindubagh of Baluchistan).

Sulphur—Largest known deposit of sulphur in India and Pakistan is in the Kalat State of Baluchistan and also available in Kohi-Sultan mountain in Baluchistan.

Manganese—The entire production comes from Indian Union; Pakistan's production is nil.

Mica—Indian Union is the largest producer of block mica and mica splittings in the world. The share of Pakistan in this mineral is negligible.

Fuller's Earth—is available in West Punjab and N.-W. F. Province.

Petroleum—Production of petroleum for two States together was 81·99 million gallons in 1945 of which Pakistan area's share was estimated at 12 million gallons. The only important oilfield is Karur in the West Punjab and Dhulian.

Gypsum—It is available in Kohat, N.-W. F. P. and West Punjab.

Coal—Tertiary coal which accounts for only 1·83 p.c. of the total coal resources of undivided India and which is not of much value occurs in West Punjab and Baluchistan. Except for an insignificant quantity of the tertiary variety, Pakistan has no coal resources. Tertiary belt of coal is found in Baluchistan and West Punjab (Shahpur, Mianwali and Jhelum).

Iron—Pakistan has no share in the iron ore resources of the country.

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Salt—Salt Range in Kohat is considered to be one of the biggest rock-salt exposures of the world. Its annual output is above 500,000 mds.

Industries—The share of Pakistan in the industries of the country is meagure. Some of the important industries such as iron and steel, jute and paper do not exist in Pakistan. In the jute industry, though East Bengal produces about 73 p.c. of the jute of two Bengals, all the jute mills are situated in West Bengal. Best cotton of India is produced in Sind and West Punjab, yet there are hardly any big cotton mills. Because of the lack of tannery, the major portion of hides and skins are exported to foreign countries. Share of Pakistan in sugar mills were only 11 out of a total of 153 mills. In cement industry Pakistan had only three factories as against 16 in the Indian Dominion. The share of Pakistan in soap, glass, chemicals, match, woollen and silk mills is negligible. Pakistan has not only no major industry within her sphere but is distressingly deficient in the very basic elements of it.

In food grains it is a surplus province. Its main cottage industries are ruge, carpets, grass-matting. It leads Indian sub-continent in the manufacture of sports goods in Sialkot. Sind produces salt, cement, cotton, woollen goods, etc. In N.W.F. Province, we have plenty of sheep, poultry, drugs, and fruit production. Some of the finest wools are to be found in this province. Date-palm is the chief production of Baluchistan. Sugar, rice, tea, bamboo, jute and tobacco are found in plentiful quantity in East Bengal.

Every year Baluchistan exports 50,000 maunds of wool worth Rs. 30 lakhs. Baluchistan wool promises a great future for carpet manufacturing and blanket making. Baluchistan is potentially one of the world's greatest fruit and vegetable growing areas.

Radio Pakistan—Three regional broadcasting stations went over to Pakistan when India was partitioned. These three stations are Lahore Station, Karachi Station and Dacca Station. New transmitters are being installed to make Radio Pakistan more powerful and up-to-date.

Exports—The main exports of Pakistan are rice, wheat, jute, tea, and tobacco and hides and skins.

Pakistan National Flag—Is three-fourth green with inset of crescent and star and one-fourth white at most end. The white portion stands for minorities.

Ports—*Karachi* is the nearest in Indian sub-continent to Europe. It is the principal port of Pakistan and also it is the greatest international air port of the East. It has a fine natural harbour. It has a big hinterland, such as West Punjab, Afghanistan, N.-W. F. Province. The principal exports are wheat, cotton, oil seeds, wool, skins and hides, rice, animal bones. The principal imports are cotton textiles, sugar, woollen piecegoods, iron and steel, coal, chemicals etc.

Chittagong—Is situated about 10 miles from the sea on the mouth of Karnafuli river in East Bengal. It is the chief port of Eastern Pakistan. The export trade consists chiefly of tea, jute, wax, cotton, rice, paddy, spices, tobacco, etc. The import trade consists of salt, iron and steel, cotton piecegoods, machinery, hardwares, chemicals, drugs, oils, poultry. There are five births for ocean-going vessels and also one set of fixed moorings.

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Population etc. of Pakistan Provinces

(Based on the Census of 1941)

	Sq. miles	Total Population	Density per sq. mile
Pakistan	361,218	71,096,000	197
West Punjab	62,012	18,746,000	302
Sind	48,136	4,535,008	94
N. W. F. Province ..	14,263	3,038,067	213
Baluchistan	54,456	501,631	9
East Bengal	54,091	41,949,710	775

States of Pakistan

	Sq. miles	Total Population	Density per sq. mile
Bhawalpur	17,494	1,341,209	71
Khairpur	5,989	305,787	51
Kalat	53,995	253,305	5

GOVERNMENT OF PAKISTAN

Governor-General

His Excellency Mr. Khawaja Nazimuddin.

Council of Ministers

Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan, (*Prime Minister for Defence*).
Sardar Abdur Rab Nishtar (*Minister for Communications*).
Mr. Ghazanfar Ali Khan (*Minister for Refugees & Rehabilitation*).
Mr. Jogendra Nath Mondal (*Minister for Law & Labour*).
Pirzada Abdus Sattar, (*Minister for Food, Agriculture & Health*).
Sir Muhammed Zafrulla Khan (*Minister for Foreign Affairs & Commonwealth Relations*).
Mr. Ghulam Mohammad (*Minister for Finance*).
Mr. Khwaja Shahabuddin (*Minister for Interior, Information & Broadcasting*).
Mr. Fazlur Rahman (*Minister for Education & Industries*).
Nawab Mustaq Ahmed Gurmani (*Minister without portfolio*).

Deputy Ministers:—

Khan Sardar Bahadur Khan (*Foreign Affairs & Commonwealth Ministry*).
Prof. Sheikh Quereshi (*Ministry of Interior*).
Dr. Mahmud Hussain (*Ministry of Defence*).

GOVERNMENT OF THE PAKISTAN PROVINCES

EAST BENGAL

Population (1941 Census)—41,842,641

Capital and Population—Dacca, 213,218 (1941).

Governor—Sir Frederick Chalmers Bourne, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

COUNCIL OF MINISTERS:
(Rs. 72,000 a year)

Mr. Nurul Amin Prime Minister (*Home, Judicial, Public Relations & Legislative*).
Mr. Hamidul Huq Choudhury (*Finance, Commerce & Industries*).
Mr. Abdul Hamid (*Education*).

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Mr. Hassan Ali (*Communications, Buildings & Irrigation*).

Mr. Syed Md. Afzal (*Civil Supplies*).

Mr. Md. Habibullah Choudhury (*Health & Local Self-Government*).

Dr. Abdul Mataleb Malik (*Agriculture*).

Mr. Mafizuddin Ahmed (*Relief, Rehabilation, Registration, Jails, Co-operation & Labour*).

Mr. Tofazzal Ali (*Revenue*).

WEST PUNJAB

Population—16,245,900 Approximate (1941).

Capital and Population—Lahore, 671,650 (1941).

Governor: Sir Francis Mudie, K.C.S.I., I.C.S.

(*Ruled under Sec. 93 of the Government of India Act*).

SIND

Population—4,535,008 (1941).

Capital & Popl.—Karachi, 386,655 (1941).

Governor: His Excellency Mr. Din Muhammad.

Council of Ministers:

(Rs. 66,000 a year)

Mr Yusuf Haroon, *Premier* (*Finance, Political Services & General Administration*).

Mr. Fazlullah Obeidullah Kazi.

Syed Miran Mohamed Shah (*Revenue, Refugees & Rehabilation*).

Mir Bundeh Ali Khan Talpur (*Public Works*).

Syed Noor Mohamed Shah (*Food, Civil Supplies, Industries and Labour*).

N. W. FRONTIER PROVINCE

Population—30,238,067 (1941).

Capital & Pop.—Peshawar, 130,967 (1941).

Governor: His Excellency Sir Ambrose Dundas.

Council of Ministers:

(Formed on Aug. 23, 1947).

Khan Abdul Quaium Khan, Premier (*Law & Order, P.W.D., Civil Defence, etc.*).

Khan Mohammed Farid Khan (*Civil Supplies, Forests, Jails & Agriculture*).

Mian Jaffar Shah (*Education*).

Speaker, Legislative Assembly—Hon. Nawabzada Allah Nawaz Khan.

BALUCHISTAN

Population—501,631 (1941).

Capital & Pop.—Quetta.

Agent to the Governor-General of Pakistan—Lt. Col. Sahibzada Mohammed Khurshid.

PAKISTAN REPRESENTATIVES ABROAD

U.S.A.—Mr. M. A. H. Ispahani (*Ambassador*).

Iran—Gazanfar Ali Khan (*Ambassador*)

Egypt—J. A. Rahim (*Charge d'Affaires*).

Afghanistan—I. I. Chundrigar (*Ambassador*).

Burma—Mr. Mahomed Ali (*Ambassador*).

India—Mohammed Ismail (*High Commissioner*).

Britain—Mr. Habib Rahimatoola (*High Commissioner*).

FOREIGN REPRESENTATIVES IN PAKISTAN

U.S.A.—Mr. Merle H. Cochran (*Ambassador*).

Afghanistan—Sardar Shahwali Khan (*Ambassador*).

Italy—Dr. Augusto Assettai (*Charge d'Affaires*).

Iran—M. Faroobar (*Charge d' Affaires*).

France—M. Leon Marchal (*Ambassador*).

Turkey—Yahyia Kemal Bey Ali (*Ambassador*).

Burma—Mr. U. Pe Kin (*Ambassador*).

India—Dr. Sitaram (*High Commissioner*).

Britain—Sir Lawrence Grafftey-Smith (*High Commissioner*).

Canada—G. A. Browne (*Trade Commissioner*).

Transjordan—Mahomed Pasha-El-Shuraiki (*Envoy*).

Poland—Albert Morski (*Consul-General*).

Australia—John Oldham (*High Commissioner*).

Egypt—Mahomed Allouba Pasha *Ambassador*).

Norway—Ernest Krogh-Hensen (*Minister*).

PAKISTAN ARMY

Commander-in-Chief of Pakistan Army—General Gracey.

Naval Commander-in-Chief, Royal Pakistan Navy—Rear Admiral Z. W. Jeffort.

Air Vice-Marshal, Royal Pakistan Air Force—Air Vice-Marshal Atcherlery.

HIGH OFFICIALS OF PAKISTAN

President Constituent Assembly—Mr. Tamizuddin Khan.

Controller of Broadcasting—Mr. Z. A. Bokhari.

Director-General of Posts & Telegraphs—Col. R. W. Spear.

Secretary-General, Pakistan Govt.—Mr. Mohammad Ali.

Secretary, Ministry of Communications—Z. A. Khan.

Secretory, Ministry of Law and Labour—Akbar Hussain.

Secretary, Ministry of Refugees and Rehabilitation—W. V. R. Grigson.

Principal Information Officer—Mr. Syed Ali Jawad.

Director of Statistics—Dr. M. M. Junaid.

Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affaires—M. Ikramullah, C.I.E.

President, Pakistan, Public Service Com.—Mr. Shahid Suhrawardy.

Jt. Secretary, Defence Ministry—Lt.-Col. Iskandar Mirza.

Advocate General, Pakiston—Mr. M. Wasim.

Secretary to the Ministry of Commerce, Industries and Works—Mr. MacFquhar.

Secretary, Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Health—H. S. M. Ishaque.

Director of Archælogy—Q. M. Moneer.

Secretary, Finance Dept. — Sir Victor Turner.

Secretary, Education Department—*Dr. Mahmood Hasan.*

Auditor-General—Yaqub Shah.

Director-General, Civil Aviation—J. P. Jeffcock.

Director-General Meteorological Services—Mahmood Aslam.

Director-General, Railways—Nazimuddin.

Secretary, Ministry of Industries—Khan Bahadur G. Faruque.

PAKISTAN FEDERAL COURT

Chief Justice—Sir Abdul Rashid.

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PAKISTAN NEWSPAPERS

Pakistan Times (Lahore).
Zamindar (Lahore).
Nawai Waquat (Lahore).
Daily Gazettee (Karachi).
Sind Observer (Karachi).
Vatan (Karachi).
Anjam (Karachi).
Jang (Karachi).
Dawn (Karachi).
Azad (Bengali daily), Dacca.

PAKISTAN UNIVERSITIES

Dacca University—Vice-Chancellor: Dr. S. N. Hussain.
West Punjab University—Vice-Chancellor: Dr. O. H. Malik.

MEMBERS OF PAKISTAN CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

East Bengal—44

President—Hon. Mr. Tamijuddin Khan (Salary Rs. 3,000 per month).

Muhammadan—

A. M. A. Hamid, Mr. Abdulla-al Mahmood, Maulana Md. Abdullah-el Baqui, Mr. Abul Kasem Khan, Maulana Md. Akram Khan, Mr. Azizuddin Ahmad, Moulavi Ebrahim Khan, Mr. A. K. Fazlul Huq, Mr. Fazlur Rahman, Mr. Ghyasuddin Pathan, Mr. Hamidul Huq Choudhury, Mr. H. S. Suhrawardy, Prof. I. H. Qureshi, Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan, Mr. Mafizuddin Ahmad, Dr. Mahmud Hussain, Dr. A. M. Malik, Mr. Martuza Raza Choudhury, Mr. Nurul Amin, Mr. Serajul Islam, Maulana Shabbir Ahmad Osmani, Mr. Mohammed Ali, Mr. Md. Habibullah Bahar, Khwaja Nazimuddin, Mr. Nur Ahmed, Tamizuddin Khan, Khwaja Shahabuddin, Begum Shaista Suhrawardy Ikramullah, Mr. A. M. Abdul Hamid, and Mr. Ghulam Mohammad.

General—

Mr. J. N. Mondal, Mr. Prem Hari Barman, Mr. Dhirendra Nath Dutta, Prof. Raj Kumar Chakravarty, Mr. Srish Chandra Chatterjee, Mr. Bhupendra Kumar Dutta, Mr. Jnanendra Chandra Mazumder, Mr. Birat Chandra Mandal, Mr. Dhanajoy Roy, Mr. Harendra Kumar Sur, Mr. Akshay Kumar Das, Mr. Bhabesh Chandra Nandy, Mr. Kamini Kumar Dutta.

West Punjab—17

Muhammadan—

Mian Md. Iftikharuddin, Mr. Nazir Ahmad Khan, Malik Md. Feroze Khan Noon, Mian Mumtaz Muhammad Khan Daulatana, Sheik Karamat Ali, Omar Hayat Malik, Begum Jahan Ara Shah Nawaz, Sardar Shaukat Hyat Khan, Sir Mohammad Zafrullah Khan, Sardar Abdur Rab Khan Nishtar, Iftikhar Hussain Khan of Mamdot.

Sind

Muhammadan—

Pirzada Abdus Sattar Abdur Rahman, Mr. Muhammed Hashim Gazder, Mr. M. A. Khuro.

N.-W. F. Province

Muhammadan—

Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan Sardar Bahadur Khan, Sardar Asad Ullah Jan Khan.

Baluchistan

Sardar Bahadur Nawab Md. Khan Jogezai.

COMMITTEES OF THE PAKISTAN CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

Fundamental and Minority Rights Committee

The President, Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan, Sardar Abdur Rab Khan Nishtar, Dr. Mahmud Hussain, Mr. Hussain, Mr. Prem Hari Barman, Mr. Fazlur Rahman, Mr. Birat Chandra Mandal, Mr. I. H. Qureshi, Mr. Abdul Kasem Khan, Mr. J. N. Mandal, Mr. Sheik Karamat Ali, Mr. Raj Kumar Chakravarty, Begum Shah Nawaz, Chaudhuri Nazir Ahmed Khan, Khwaja Shahabuddin, C. E. Gibbon, Dewan Bahadur S. P. Singha, Sir Mohd. Zafrulla Khan, Mr. J. N. Mehta, Mr. Phani Bhusan Barua.

States Negotiating Committee

Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan (Chairman), Ghaznafar Ali Khan, Sardar Abdur Rab Khan Nishar, Khwaja Sahabuddin, Pir Illahi Baksha.

Tribal Areas Negotiating Committee

Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan (Chairman), Sardar Abdur Rab Khan Nishtar, Nawab Md. Khan Jogezai, Khwaja Nazimuddin, Sardar Aurangzeb Khan, Prof. L. K. Hyder, Pir Sahib of Manki Sharif.

Steering Committee

S. C. Chatterjee, Begum Shaista Suhrawardy Ikramullah, Khwaja Shahabuddin, Tamijuddin Khan, Sardar Abdur Rab Khan Nishtar, M. A. Khuro, Malik Mohd. Firoz Khan Noon.

Finance Committee

The President, Mr. Prem Hari Burman, Khan Sardar Bahadur Khan, Begum Shah Nawaz, Mr. A. M. A. Hamid.

Credentials Committee

Mr. Akshay K. Das, Mian Mohd. Iftikhar-ud-Din, Prof. I. H. Qureshi, Mr. Azizuddin Ahmad, Chaudhuri Nazir Ahmad Khan.

All-Pakistan Muslim League

President—Chaudhury Khaliquzzaman.
Vice-President—Abdul Baqi.
Secretary—Yusuf Khatak.

WHO'S WHO IN INDIA

Abdullah, Sheikh Mohammad—b. 1905 near Srinagar; graduated from Lahore and M.Sc. from Aligarh University in 1930; school master under Kashmir Government; came in the public life in 1930; First started Muslim Conference with religious and communal outlook which he turned into National Conference in 1938; was sent to jail several times notably in 1946 for 'quit Kashmir' agitation; President of the All-Indian State People's Conference; was released in 1947; became head of the Emergency Administration of Kashmir during Muslim tribal raids which overran the country, 1947; successfully rallied Kashmir against the trans-border invaders; appointed Prime Minister of Kashmir, 1948; popularly known as *Sher-i-Kashmir.*

Aiyer Ramaswami, Sir C. P., K.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., C.I.E.—born, 12th Nov. 1879; joined Madras Bar in 1903; Member of Madras Corporation, 1911; General Secretary of the Congress, 1917-18; Advocate-General of Madras, 1920; Law Member, Madras Government 1923-1928; Member of the R.T.C.; Law Member of Government of India; 1931 & 1942; Member of the Council of State, 1930 · Vice-Chancellor, Travancore University, 1937; Dewan of Travancore, 1936-1947.

Ambedkar, Dr. B. R., M.A., Ph.D., D.Sc., Bar-at-Law—b. 1893; Gaekwar's scholar at Columbia University; Professor, Sydenham College of Commerce, 1917; called to Bar, 1923; Founder of the Depressed Classes Institute; nominated member of the Bombay Legislative Council, 1926; member, R.T.C., 1930-32 and Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1932; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1942-46, now Minister of Law, Government of India, 1947.

Ahmed, Sir Syed Sultan, K.C.S.I.—born 1880; called to the Bar 1905; Govt. Advocate, Patna; Judge, Patna High Court, 1919-20; Vice-Chancellor, Patna University, 1923-30; member, Governor's Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1932; member, Viceroy's Executive Council 1937; 1941 to 1945; was Legal Adviser to the Chamber of Princes, 1945-47.

Anthony, Frank R.,—Bar-at-Law, born 1908 and educated at Nagpur University and Bar-at-Law of Inner Temple, London; President of the Anglo-Indian & Domiciled European Association; was a leading debator of the Nagpur University; Winner, Viceroy's Gold Medal for English; Member of the National Defence Council; Member, Central Assembly, 1942 & 1946; Member, Indian Delegation to U. N. O. 1946, Member of the Indian Constituent Assembly.

Aiyar, Sir Alladi Krishnaswami—born 1883; educated at Christian College, Madras; joined Madras High Court in 1907; was Advocate-General of Madras, 1929; member, Madras University Senate; member, Indian Constituent Assembly.

Ali Zahir, Syed—born 1897; educated at Allahabad and Oxford; called to the Bar (Middle Temple) in 1921; General Secretary, All Parties Shia Conference; member U. P. Legislative Assembly 1937-46; Member, Lucknow University Court; Member, Lucknow Municipal Board; Law member, Interim Central Government, 1946; India's Ambassador to Iran, 1947.

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Aney, M. S., M.A., B.L.—born 1880; educated at Morris College, Nagpur; joined Bar in 1908, thrice member of the Legislative Assembly C. P. and Berar; joined C. D. movement, 1930; suffered imprisonment; member, Congress Working Committee, 1924-25 and 1931-34; was a prominent member of the Congress Nationalist Party and Hindu Mahasabha; started All-India Hindu League; member, Viceroy's Executive Council, 1941-43; was India's Representative in Ceylon upto 1947; member, Constituent Assembly of India, 1947-48; Governor of Bihar from Jan. 1948.

Ali, Asaf, Bar-at-Law—b. 1888, educated at St. Stephen's College, Delhi; studied law in London and called to Bar in 1912; took part in the Khilafat agitation 1919; joined non-co--operation movement 1920; arrested in 1921 and sentenced to one and half years' imprisonment; again imprisoned during civil disobedience movement, 1930; Deputy Leader of the Congress Party in the Central Assembly; member of the Central Assembly 1935-1946; again imprisoned during August revolution and released in 1945; member Congress Working Committee; member for Transport & Railways in Interim Government 1946-47; India's first Ambassador to U.S.A., 1947; now Governor of Orissa since June 1948.

Azad, Maulana Abul Kalam—b. in Mecca 1889 and passed his childhood in Arabia; educated in theology in famous Al-Azhar University, Cairo; started famous Urdu paper *All Hilal* in Calcutta; interned by British Government on the eve of the World War I; met Mahatma Gandhi in 1921 and became one of his stunchest supporters; took a leading part in the Khilafat movement and also joined the Congress under Gandhiji's leadership; president, special session of the Congress, Delhi, 1923 and again president in 1930; is a member of the Congress Working Committee; President of the Congress 1940-46; imprisoned in 1942 under D. I. Rules and released in 1945; conducted negotiations with the British cabinet mission on behalf of the Congress in 1946; member, Constituent Assembly, 1947; Education Minister, Government of India from August 1947.

Ansari, Abdul Quiyum—born 1905 at Dehri-on-Sone, educated at Aligarh, Calcutta and Allahabad Universities; joined Mahatma Gandhi's Satyagraha movement in 1919; imprisoned in 1922, edited several Urdu papers; joined Momin movement for the uplift of four and half crores of Momins of India, 1938; elected president of Bihar Provincial Jamiat-ul-Momineen, 1938; President, 1st Session of the Bihar Provincial Momin Conference, 1940; Executive member of the All-India Azad Muslim Conference, 1940; Minister, Bihar Government since 1946.

Anand, Mulukraj—b. 1905; educated at the Punjab University; won research scholarship and studied philosophy in London and Cambridge; writer and art critic; won fame as writer of novels *'Colie'* and *'Untouchable'*, now editor of *Marg*, famous art magazine.

Ayyangar, N. Gopalaswami, B.A., B.L.—born 31st March 1882; Educated at Presidency and Law Colleges, Madras; entered Madras Civil Service, 1905; Collector and Dt. Magistrate, 1905-1920; member, Indian Legislative Assembly 1927; Inspector of Municipal Councils & Local Boards

1931-32; Secy., to Madras Govt. P. W. Dept., 1932-34; member, Board of Revenue, Madras 1935-37; Prime Minister of Kashmir 1937-43; member, Council of State; was Chairman of the Committee for Indianization of Indian Armed Forces; member of the Indian Constituent Assembly; Minister of India without fortfolio; led Kashmir delegation in U. N. 1947; now Minister of Railways and Transport since Sept., 1948.

Bhopal, Nawab of—His Highness Sikander Saulat Iftikar-ul-muluk, Nawab Mohamed Hamidulla Khan Bahadur, G.C.I.E., C.V.O.—born 1894; succeeded his mother, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begum on her voluntary abdiction in his favour in May 1926; one of the most progressive rulers of Indian States; was Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes for several years; a keen sportsman.

Bhavanagar, Maharaja of; Col. H. H. Maharaja Shri Sir Krishna Kumar Sinhji Bhavsinhji, K.C.S.I.—born May 19, 1912; educated at Harrow; succeeded to the Gadi on July 17, 1919, and invested with full ruling powers on April 18, 1931; His state along with other States joined together to form Union of Saurashtra; was Rajpramukh of Saurastra, 1948; now Governor of Madras 1948.

Bhaba, Dr. Homi J., PH.D. (Cantab.), F.R.S. — Born October 30, 1909; educated at Bombay and Cambridge; took mathematical Tripos there; was awarded the Rouse-Ball travelling studentship in mathematics in 1932; worked under famous Professor E. Fermi in 1933-34 in Rome and under Prof. H. H. Kramer in Utrecht; was awarded Isaac Newton Studentship 1934; lectured at Cambridge on Cosmic Radiation, Nuclear Physics; Professor, Bangalore Science Institute on Cosmic rays 1942-45, Chairman, Atomic Energy Board, Govt. of India; now Professor Fundamental Research Institute, Bombay; elected F.R.S. in 1941.

Bardoloi Gopinath, M.A., B.L., M.L.A.—born 1891; educated at Cotton College, Gauhati; sometime Head Master of Sonarani High School, Gauhati; joined Bar 1921; joined non-co-operation movement and was goaled for a year 1922; Chairman, Gauhati Municipality 1934-38; Leader of the Congress Party in Assam Legislative Assembly 1937; Premier of the Congress Coalition Ministry 1938-39; again in jail for individual Satyagraha 1942; Security prisoner under D. I. F. 1942-1944; Congress Premier of Assam from 1946; President of the Gauhati University Trust Board, 1945.

Bajpai Sir G. S., K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.—born 1891; educated at Allahabad and Merton College, Oxford and topped the list of successful I.C.S. candidates; joined I.C.S. in 1915; Secretary, Govt. of India in Education Dept.; was on deputation to Canzda, Australia and New Zealand to investigate the status of Indians there; Secretary to Indian Deputation to South Africa, 1925-26; Private Secretary to Indian Delegatiion to Geneva. 1929-30. Jt. Secretary to Indian Delegation to R.T.C.; Secretary to Education Department 1927-29; member Viceroy's Executive Council, 1935-36; Agent-General of Govt. of India to U.S.A. 1941-46; India's Representative on the Council of U.N.R.R.A. 1941-46; now Secretary-General, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, India.

Birla, Ghanshyamdas—b. 1894 in Jaipur State; Managing Director of Birla Bros. Ltd.; owns cotton mills, sugar mills, zamindari, etc. all over India; was member of the Legislative Assembly; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta, 1924; and of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce 1929; member of the Indian Fiscal Commission and of Royal Commission on Labour, 1930; Delegate to the International Labour Conference at Geneva 1927; member of Second R.T.C., Chairman, All-India Harijan Sevak Sangh.

Bewoor, Sir Gurunath Venkatesh, KT., K.C.I.E., C.I.E., I.C.S.—Born Nov. 20, 1888; educated at Deccan College, Poona and Cambridge University; passed I.C.S. in 1911 and served Central Provinces and Berar for 11 years; appointed Postmater-General of Bihar and Orissa, C.P. and Bombay; was ultimately appointed Director-General, 1934-48; Indian delegate to the Air Mail Congress at the Hague, 1927; the Universal Postal Congress at London 1929; Delegate to the World Aviation Conference 1944; was Secretary to Govt. of India, Post and Air Department 1942-46; member, Viceroy's Executive Council 1946; now Director, Tata Industries Ltd. since 1946.

Bose, Nandalal—born 3rd Dec., 1883; passed Entrance Examination and joined Calcutta Govt. School of Arts where he completed the prescribed course; came under the influence of Dr. Abanindranath Tagore while in Govt. Art School; Served apprenticeship under the master for several years; joined Santiniketan School of Tagore in 1914; is now director of Kalabhavan, Santiniketan since 1919; travelled Far East, China, Japan with Poet Tagore in 1924; decorated Congress pandals and exhibitions many times; is the most representative exponent of Indian Art.

Bose, Sarat Chandra, M.A., B.L., Bar-at-Law—born 1889; educated at the Ravenshaw College, Cuttack and Presidency College, Calcutta; took M.A. degree in 1908 and B.L. degree in 1911; called to the Bar in England in 1913; Member, Congress Legislative Assembly 1927; Alderman of Calcutta Corporation 1924-32; Member, Indian Legislative Assembly 1934; President of the B.P.C.C.; was prisoner under Regulation III of 1818 from 1932 to 1935; member, Bengal Legislative Assembly 1937 and elected leader of the Party; imprisoned under D.I.A. in 1941 and released in 1945; was Leader of the opposition of the Congress Party in Central Assembly, 1937-46; joined Interim Govt. of India & resigned 1946; formed Socialist Republican Party in 1947.

Bhatnagar, Sir Santi Swarupa, O.B.E., D.SC. (Lond.), F.R.S—born 1895; educated at Lahore, Berlin and London; received D.Sc. (Lond.), 1921; Professor of Chemistry, Hindu University, 1921-24. Prof. Punjab Univ. 1924-40; Director of the Board and Council of Scientific & Industrial Research, 1940; President, Ind. Science Congress 1945; elected fellow of the Royal Society 1943; member Indian Scientific mission to England & U.S.A. 1945; now Director, Industrial & Scientific Research.

Bhargava, Dr. Gopichand—born 1889; educated at Lahore; entered politics under Lala Lajpat Rai; Member Punjab Legislative Council 1927-28; jailed for non-cooperation movement 1942-43; member, Punjab Legislative Assembly 1937; again in 1946; was member of the Punjab Partition Committee; Trustee, Village Industries Asso-

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ciation; now Premier of the East Punjab since 15th August, 1947.

Cariappa, General K. M.—born Jan. 28, 1900 in Mercara, Coorg; educated in the Central High School, Mercara and Presidency College, Madras; was among the first batch of Indian Cadets to be commissioned from Daly College, Indore 1919; was with $^{1}/_{17}$th Rajputs in Waziristan 1922-25; was the first Indian officer to enter the Staff College, Quetta 1933; was appointed Deputy Assistant Quartermaster-General, Deccan District 1938; served with the 10th Indian Division in Iraq, Syria and Iran 1941-1942; became Lt.-Col. in 1942 and commanded a machine gun battalion of the 7th Rajputs, thus becoming the first Indian to command a battalion; appointed Assistant Adjutant and Quartermaster-General, Eastern Army 1943; member of the Army Reorganisation Committee 1944; visited England in 1946 as one of the first two Indian students at the Imperial Defence College; promoted to the rank of Major-General 1947; was Chief of general staff for a brief period 1947; appointed G.O.C.-in-Chief, Eastern Command 1947; raised to the rank of Lt.-General 1947, appointed G.O.C.-in-Chief D. E. P. Command in 1948; now Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army and Chief of the Army Staff, 1948.

Chandrasekhar, S., F.R.S.—born 19th Oct. 1910; educated at Presidency College, Madras, Cambridge,, Copenhagen, etc., elected fellow of the Trinity College, Cambridge; visiting Professor of two American Universities, Harvard and Chicago 1935; returned to India 1936; joined Yarkes Observatory of Chicago University as Research Associate, 1937 and promoted to Assistant professor of Astrophysics; appointed Prof. of Astrophysics; in 1943; Awarded D.Sc. degree of Cambridge University, 1942; one of the greatest authorities on astrophysics; author of many astronomical books, such as *New method of Stellar Dynamics*, *Principles of Stellar Dynamics*; elected fellow of the Royal Society, 1944.

Chamanlal, Dewan—born 18[illegible] and educated in London and at Oxford; was assistant editor of *Bombay Chronicle*; member of the Central Legislative Assembly, 1923-1941; member of the Punjab Legislative Assembly, 1937 and 1946; member, Central Assembly, 1946; Adviser to Workers' Delegate to the I.L.O. Conference at Geneva 1925; Labour Delegate to I.L.O. Conference Bureau, 193[illegible]; one of the founders of the A.I.T.U.C.; member of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, 1929-31; President of the Federation of Posts and Telegraph Union; Leader of the Indian Food Delegation to Argentina; delegate to I.L. Conference at Montreal 1946; was member of the Constituent Assembly; now Ambassador of India to Turkey.

Chatterjee, Sir Atul, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., G.C.I.E., I.C.S. (Retd.)—born 24 Nov., 1874; stood first in I.C.S. Exam. 1897; was High Commissioner for India 1925-31 represented Govt. of India on many important occasions, notably at the International Labour Conference at Washington and London Naval Conference; was the Leader of the Indian Delegation Imperial Conference at Ottawa, 1932; was Adviser of the Secretary of State for India 1942.

Chattopadhyaya, Harindranath—born 1898; brother of poetess Sarojini Naidu; educated at Hyderabad, Deccan; well-known as a poet, playwright; has travelled extensively throughout Europe and America; has acquired specialised knowledge on theatre and stage-craft; is a disciple of Sri Aurobindo; author of following books—*Feast of Youth; Perfume of Earth, Gray Clouds, etc.*

Chaudhuri, Major-General J. N.—born in 1908; son of Mr. A. N. Chaudhuri, Calcutta Barrister; educated in United Kingdom and joined Sandhurst; commissioned in 1928 and posted to the Light Cavalry; went to Sudan, Eritrea, Abyssinia and the Western Desert as Staff Officer of the famous 5th Indian Division in the World War II; was awarded O.B.E.; Senior Instructor at the Staff College, Quetta, 1943; Commander of the 16th Light Cavalry, 1944; Brigadier-in-Charge, Administration, Malaya Command, 1946; went to England to attend a course at Imperial Defence College, 1947; became Brigadier and then Director of Military Operations at Army Headquarters, 1947; promoted to Major General and became Officiating Chief of the General Staff, 1948; was appointed G.O.C., 1st Indian Armoured Division that brought Hyderabad to submission; appointed Military Governor of Hyderabad, 1948.

Chagla, Mr. Justice Mohamedali Currim, B.A., (Oxon.)—born 30th Sept. 1900; educated at Bombay and Oxford; called to Bar (Inner Temple) 1922; Professor, Govt. Law College, Bombay 1927-30; Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University 1947; Govt. of India delegate to U. N. 1947; now Chief Justice of Bombay High Court.

Chetty, Sir R. K. Sanmukham, K.C.I.E.—born Oct. 17, 1892. Educated at Madras Christian College; member of the Madras Legislative Council in 1920; member, Legislative Assembly, 1923; visited Australia as a delegate to the Empire Parliamentary Association; adviser to Indian Employers' delegate at I.L.O.; delegate to Ottawa Economic Conference 1932; member, Central Government Retrenchment Committee, 1930; Deputy President, Central Assembly 1931; President of the Legislative Assembly 1933; Dewan of Cochin 1935; Head of the Govt. of India Supply Mission in America 1941-42; Govt. of India's delegate to Bretton Woods Monetary Conference 1944; President, Ind. Tariff Board 1945-1947; Finance Minister of Indian Union, 1947-48.

Chopra, Lt.-Col. Sir R. N., C.I.E., M.A., M.D. (Cant.), M.R.C.P. (Lond.)—born 1882; joined I.M.S. in 1908; Director of the School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta, 1935-41; has attained international fame by his researches in tropical diseases; president of the Indian Drugs Enquiry Committee 1930-31; is responsible for starting of Bio-Assay Laboratory in Calcutta for laying down standards in medicines; was the Honorary Physician to the King 1935-39; is now Director of Drug Research Laboratory, Kashmir.

Chandravarkar, Sir V. N., B.A. (Cantab.); Bar-at-Law—b. 1887, son of Sir N. G. Chandravarkar; educated at Bombay and Cambridge; member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1926-39; Mayor of Bobmbay, 1932-33; Chairman, Bombay Milowners' Association, 1936 and 1940, Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, 1938-39; President Liberal Federation, 1940; member, Council of Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

Dalal, Sir Ardeshir Rustomji, KT., I.C.S. (Retd.)—born 1884; Director and partner, Messrs. Tata

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Sons, Ltd.; Director of many Tata Companies; educated at Bombay and Cambridge; became Ag. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education, Health and Land Departments; Municipal Commissioner, Bombay; member of the Viceroy's Executive Council (Planning & Development, 1944-46).

Das Gupta, Satish Satish Chandra—Born 1882; began his career as Superintendent of Bengal Chemical & Pharmaceutical Works, Calcutta; left the service and joined non-co-operation movement; started *Khadi Pratisthan* for the development of cottage industries and khadi work and achieved signal success; has devoted entirely to the constructive side of Congress programme; imprisoned several times.

Daulatram, Jairamdas—b. 1892 at Hyderabad, Sind; Graduated in law 1915; took part in non-cooperation movement, 1919; member, A.I.C.C. since 1917; Editor, *Hindu* (Karachi), 1921; General Secretary, Hindu Mahasabha, 1925-27; Editor, *Hindustan Times*, Delhi, 1925-26; Member Bombay Legislative Council, 1926-29; General Secretary, Indian National Congress, 1931-34; Member, Congress Working Committee 1928-41; imprisoned four times during political movement 1930-34; was Member of the Indian Constituent Assembly; Governor of Bihar, 1947; now Minister of Food, Government of India.

Dalmia, Seth Ramkrishna—Born April 3, 1893; is one of the biggest industrialists of India; has started in Dalmianagar (Dehri-on-Sone) many factories for producing cement, paper, sugar, chemicals, etc.; is a great philanthropist; is the head of the Dalmia-Jain group consisting of numerous chain of companies which include banks, insurance Co. newspapers, paper mills, cement companies, sugar mills, collieries, aviation companies, cotton mills, etc., etc., has endowed many charitable trusts.

Devi, Kamala—born 1903, Mangalore; educated in Madras and London School of Economics, general secretary of the All-India Women's Conference, 1926-30; President, All-India Women's Conference, 1944-45; married Harindranath Chattopadhyaya, the poet and brother of Mrs. Sarojini Naidu; a gifted speaker; entered Congress, 1922; imprisoned four times owing to Congress activities; First Woman to contest Legislative Council election in India, 1926; prominent member of the Indian Socialist Party; went on world tour, 1939-41; member of the Congress Working Committee, 1946-47.

Deshmukh, Sir C. D., C.I.E.,—Born Jan. 14, 1896; educated Bombay, Cambridge and entered I.C.S. in 1919; one of the secretaries of R.T. Conference, 1931; Jt. Secretary, Govt. of India Education, Health and Lands Dept.; Secy., Reserve Bank of India 1939-41; Dy. Governor, Reserve Bank of India, 1941-43; Governor, Reserve Bank of India 1943-48; India's delegate to world monetary conference, 1944; Governor for India on Internation Monetary Fund, and International Bank.

Diwakar, R. R.—Born 1894; educated in Belgaum and Hubli; graduated from Fergusson College, Poona, 1916; graduated in Law, 1921; joined non-co-operation movement in 1921 and sentenced for two years; Editor of *Nava Sakti* in 1923; again convicted for sedition for two years; Secretary of the Karnatak Provincial Congress Committee, 1926-29; President of the Provincial Congress

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Committee upto 1934; sentenced for Salt Satyagraha in 1930; again convicted for sedition in 1934; Editor of the *Samyukta Karnatak* in 1935; arrested during Individual C. D. Movement, 1940-41; arrested during 'Quit India' movement and detained till July, 1945; member of the Constituent Assembly, 1946; delegate to the 37th Session of the Inter-Parliamentary Union Conference in Rome, 1948; Appointed minister of State in-charge, Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, 1948.

Dutt, Rajani Palme—b. 1896, educated Balliol College, Oxford; Secy. International Research Dept. 1919-22; Executive member of the same 1921-26; Editor *"Worker's Weekly"* 1921-26; Editor, *"Labour Monthly"* since 1921: one of the greatest living authorities on Marxism; Author of *"Labour International Handbook," "Modern India," World Politics,"* 1918-36; Vice-Chairman, Communist Party, England; visited India in 1946.

Das, Taraknath—one of the distinguished Ind. scholars in U.S.A.; went to Japan; went to America; acted as interpreter in the Immigration Office in Seattle, Washington and at Pacific Coast Ports; became American citizen 1914; took university degree at Georgetown University at Washington; was on the faculties of the New England Institute of International Relations, Wellesley College, Cornell University, etc.; is an well-known authority on Labour problems; author of several books.

Gadgil, N. V.—born 10th Jan. 1896 at Malhargarh, Central India; educated at Poona and Baroda; graduated in 1918 with honours in Economics and Politics; was member and Vice-President of the Poona Municipality; Secretary and President of Maharashtra Provincial Congress Committee; member A.I.C.C.; member, Central Legislative Assembly 1935-1946; was Secretary of the Congress Party in the Central Assembly for several years; now Minister of Indian Union for Works, Mines and Power.

Ghose, Aurobindo—Born in Calcutta, 1872; went to England at the age of 7; educated at St. Paul's School and King's College, Cambridge where he took a first class in classical Tripos; Passed I.C.S., examination but was disqualified for horse riding, 1890; After service in Baroda, he returned to Bengal and joined in the political movement; was the first editor of *Bande Mataram;* was arrested in the Alipore Bomb Case but was acquitted; has settled at Pondicherry in 1910; has abandoned politics altogether and has remained to this day engaged in endless quest for a knowledge of God; has established an *'Ashram'* at Pondicherry.

Ghose, Sir J. C., D.Sc.—Born 1894; had a distinguished career at Calcutta and London Universities; Professor of Chemistry, Cal. University 1915-21; Head of the Chemistry Department of Dacca University, 1921-39; has made notable contributions to science in the field of electro-chemistry, theory of salt solutions and mechanism of chemical reactions specially under the influence of radiation; member of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research since 1931; member of the governing body of the Indian Research Fund Association 1935-39; President Indian Science Congress, 1939; was Director, Science Institute, Bangalore; now Director-General of Industries, India.

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Ghose, Dr. Prafulla Chandra—Comes from Malikanda, Dacca; passed B.A., with 1st class honours in Chemistry, 1913; M.A., in 1916; First Indian to be appointed Deputy Assay Master, Calcutta Mint, 1920; gave up the service to join non-co-operation movement, 1921; had been in jails number of times in 1920, 1930, 1932, 1933 and 1934; member of the Congress Working Committee since 1939; was again imprisoned in 1940 and 1942; is one of the founders of Abhoy Ashram, well-known for constructive work in East Bengal; was Premier of W. Bengal, 1947-48

Gour, Sir Hari Singh, D.Litt., LL.D., Bar-at-Law—Born 1872; educated Hislop College, Nagpur and at Cambridge; President, Nagpur Municipal Committee, 1918-22, elected Dy. President of Assembly; delegate to Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms 1933; first Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University; author of several standard law books; was Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur University, now Vice-Chancellor of Saugor University which he has started.

Giri, V. V.—educated at Berhampore (Ganjam) and Dublin; practised law in Ganjam before being elected president of the B. N. R. Indian Labour Union; represented All-India Trade Union Congress at I.L.O. in Geneva 1926; represented labour in R.T.C. 1930-31; became member of the Madras Legislative Assembly, 1937; minister of Labour and Industries under Congress Government, 1937; again minister of Madras Government 1946 which he resigned; was General Secretary & President of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation; twice President of the All-India Trade Union Congress; now India's ambassador to Ceylon.

Gupta, Lala Deshbandhu,—M.L.A. (Central)—born 1901; Managing Director of the leading Urdu daily paper of north India "*Tej*", had been in jail several times for Congress cause; member of the Central Press Advisory Committee; President, Delhi Prov. Congress Committee; member, Indian Constituent Assembly.

Ghuznavi, Sir Abdul Halim Abul Hussein Khan, Kt. (1935)—Landlord and Merchant; Born Nov. 11, 1876; Elected Member, Indian Legislative Assembly, 1926-1945; Delegate to all the three Round Table Conferences in London; Delegate to the Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1933; Member, Advisory Board, Indian Delegation to the World Economic Conference, 1933; Member Court, University of Aligarh; Fellow Calcutta University; President Central National Muhammadan Association, Calcutta; Member, Royal Asiatic Society; Chairman, Trustees of Indian Museum, Calcutta; Member, Governing Body, I. M. M. T. S. "*Dufferin*"; President, Muslim Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta 1939-40; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1934-36; Knighthood, 1935; Member, Constituent Assembly of India; President, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta (1945-46); Director of Lionel Edwards Ltd., J. B. Norton & Sons Ltd., United Press of India Ltd., India Steamship Co., Ltd., and of many collieries and Sugar Mills; Proprietor, Messrs. A. H. Ghuznavi & Co., 19, Strand Rd., Calcutta; member, Royal Calcutta Turf Club; New Delhi Aero Club and Gymkhana club; Residence: 18, Canal St. Intally, P.O., Calcutta; Country House, Santikunja, Tangail (Dist. Mymensingh), East Bengal.

Habibulla, Sir Muhammad, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., LL.D.—born, 1869; joined bar in 1888; member, Legislative Council, Madras 1909-12; Commissioner, Madras Corporation, 1910; temporary member, Madras Executive Council, 1919; twice member of the Executive Council of Madras; became member for Education in Viceroy's Executive Council, 1925-30· led the Indian Delegation to South Africa in 1926; leader of the Indian Delegation to the League of Nations, 1929; Dewan of Travancore, 1934.

Jay Prakash Narain—born in the Saran district of Bihar; left for America in 1922, and stayed there for nearly eight years and studied at five different Universities; returned to India in 1929, and was placed in charge of Labour Research Department of the Congress and acted as General Secretary of the Congress 1930-32; was imprisoned for C.D. movement; formed Congress Socialist Party in 1934; was imprisoned in 1939 under D. I. Act and was released in 1946; member, Congress Working Committee, 1946-47.

Jayakar, Mukund Ramrao, Dr. Bar-at-Law, LL.D., D.C.L., P.C.—Educated at Bombay University; entered Bombay Legislative Council, 1923, and became leader of the Swaraj Party in Assembly; broke away from the Congress; played a prominent part to bring peace between the Congress and the Government in June 1930 but failed; Member, Legislative Assembly 1926-30; a member of the R.T.C. and Joint Select Committee, 1933; appointed Judge of the Federal Court of India, 1937; received LL.D. from Oxford, 1938; was Member of Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Jagjiwan Ram,—Member of the Bihar Legislative Assembly; President, All-India Depressed Classes League; Secretary, Bihar Provincial Congress Committee till June 1946; Parliamentary Secretary of the Congress Ministry (1937-39); Minister of the Congress Government in Bihar 1946; was Labour Member, Interim Central Government 1947; now Minister of Labour, Indian Union.

Jha, Amarnath, Dr.—born 25th Feb., 1897; University Professor 1930; Vice-Chairman, Allahabad Municipality; President, All-India Educational Conference; is a Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature; a Vice-President of the Poetry Society; Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts; was Vice-Chancellor of the Allahabad University; now Vice-Chancellor of Hindu University.

Joshi, N. M.—born 1879; educated at Poona; was member of the Legislative Assembly; a prominent member of the Servants of India Society; was a member of Bombay Corporation, 1919-23; represented Labour in the Legislative Assembly for several years; was a member of the Royal Commission on Labour, 1929-31; member of the R.T.C. 1930-32; represented India in the International Labour Conference at Geneva on many occasions; general secretary, Trade Union Congress, 1940.

Joshi, P. C., LL.B., M.A.—born 1907; joined Communist movement when in college; convicted in Meerut Conspiracy Case for 5 years; secretary of the party 1937-48; edited the party weekly *National Front* for some time; started party's new organ *People's War* which name was changed to *People's Age* after the end of war.

Khan, H. H. The Rt. Hon. Aga, G.C.I.E., G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., LL.D. (Cantab); P.C. (1934)—Born in 1877, personal distinction of "His Highness" conferred in 1886; got K.C.I.E in 1889, G.C.I.E. in 1902 and G.C.S.I., in 1911; was a nominated member of the Imperial Legislative Council; is the spiritual head of Ismailiah sect of Mussalmans; is a great sportsman and owner of famous race-horses; has won Derby, in 1930, 1935, and 1936, Cesarewitch, Oaks and St. Leger; was President of the Assembly of League of Nations, 1934; weighed against diamonds in March 1946 to celebrate his diamond jubilee.

Karve, Prof. D. K.—born in April 18, 1858; founder of Hindu Widow's Home and Indian Women's University at Poona; became professor of Fergusson College at Poona; founded Widow Marriage Association; ultimately started Indian Women's University which was inaugurated in 1916.

Kidwai, Rafi Ahmed—born 1894; educated at M.A.O. College, Aligarh; a zemindar of Barabanki; actively participated in all the Congress movements since 1921; was associated with Pandit Motilal Nehru; was a member of the Central Assembly and was its Congress Whip; was President of U. P. Provincial Congress Committee; was President of the U. P. Congress Parliamentary Board; Congress Minister of the Province 1937-39 and again in 1946; now Minister of Communications of Indian Union.

Kaur, Rajkumari Amrit—born 1887; daughter of late Raja Sir Harnam Singh of Patiala; educated at Sherborne School, Dorsetshire and London; a keen sportswoman and as a tennis player won many championships; one of the pioneers of the women's movement in India; was one of the sponsors of All-India Women's Conference; Chairwoman, A.I.W.C. 1931-33; member, Board of Trustees, All-India Spinners Association; a keen admirer and follower of Mahatma Gandhi; was arrested and detained in 1942; appointed Minister of Health, Indian Union.

Khurshed Lal—Born 4th March 1903; Educated Lucknow University; B.A. (Honours) 1924; M.A. (Economics) 1925, LL.B. 1926; Advocate High Court, Allahabad; had a distinguished academic career; Stood first in the B.A. Honours examination; awarded gold medal at the All-India college debate, Banares; Joined Bar at Dehra Dun 1926; Joined Congress 1930; Courted imprisonment several times 1932, 1941 and 1942; Chairman, Municipal Board, Dehra Dun 1935-40; during his regime great changes were made in the town of Dehra Dun including the setting up of a Water Works, and the Dehra Dun Board was recognised as the best administered Municipal Board in the United Provinces; Resigned Chairmanship in 1940 when the European and Muslim members combined to pass a resolution for the removal of the National Flag from the Municipal Office; Elected Member, Constituent Assembly in 1946; now Deputy Minister, Communications, Govt. of India, 1948.

Katju, Dr. Kailash Nath, M.A., LL.D.—Born 17th June, 1887; joined Allahabad High Court as advocate 1914; obtained LL.D. of Allahabad University, 1919; Chairman of the Allahabad Municipal Board, 1925-27; Minister under Congress Government 1937-39; member, All-India Congress Committee; was imprisoned in 1930 for Civil Disobedience Movement and again detained under D.I.R. 1942-43; Minister, U. P. Government 1946-47; author of several law books; Governor of Orissa, 1947-48; now Governor of West Bengal.

Krishnaswami Iyer, Kt., Sir Abladi—Born 1883, educated at Christian College, Madras; became Advocate, 1907; member of the Madras University Syndicate; made Dewan Bahadur, 1930; appointed Advocate-General of Madras, 1929-44; Knighted, 1931; nominated member of the Legislative Council, Madras; Member Constituent Assembly of India.

Keshkar, Dr. Balkrishna Vishwanath, D.Litt (Paris)—Deputy Minister of External Affairs and Commonwealth Relations, Government of India; born in Poona; educated at Hyderabad (Deccan); joined non-co-operation movement in 1921; was lecturer of Kashi Vidyapith 1927-1930; Educated at Paris 1933-1939 where he got Doctorate in 1935 from Paris University; has specialised in International politics; was appointed Secretary to the Foreign Department of the A. I.C.C. in 1940; joined non-co-operation movement in 1921; was sentenced to imprisonment in 1930, 1931 and 1943; detained during individual civil disobedience movement 1941-42; joined the August revolution in 1942 as underground worker; General Secretary of the Congress 1946-47; was elected to the Constituent Assembly from U.P. 1948; was the official observer of the 37th Session of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, Rome 1948; Hobbies; travel, hiking and photography.

Menon, Krishna V. K.—born 3rd May, 1897; educated at Madras and London; Councillor, St. Pancras, London; Special representative Govt. of India, 1946-47; noted author, journalist and publicist; first editor of Pelican Books; devotes his time for propagating Congress ideals in England; has written numerous tracts and books dealing with India; is associated with many c
associations for advancin
cause in England; was
of the India League,
Indian delegate to U.N.O
was Pandit Nehru's Perso
presentative in Europe; nov
Commissioner of India in

Kunzru, Pandit Hridayanat
—born 1887; educated at
bad University and Londo
ed Servants of India Soci
member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1921-23; member, Central Assembly 1927-30; President, National Liberal Federation 1934; member of the Council of State 1937-47; President of the Servants of India Society; member Constituent Assembly of India; Chairman, National Cadet Corps Committee, 1946-47; Delegate to the Pacific Relations Conference, U.S.A., 1945.

Lall, Shamaldhari—born Oct. 4, 1894; educated at Calcutta University and Exeter College, Oxford; entered I.C.S. in 1919; Divisional Magistrate and Collector Bihar and Orissa 1920; Under-Secretary to the Government of India, Industries and Labour Department 1924-1927; Jt.-Secretary to Royal Commission on Labour 1929; Director of Industries and Labour and Secretary to the Government of Bihar and Orissa; Deputy High Commissioner for India in London 1938-1944; Jt.-Secretary, Government of India, Labour Department and Ministry of Labour since 1944; Leader of the Indian Delegation to I.L.O. at Montreal 1946; a government delegate for I.L.O. in 1947 and 1948; is now Government of India's representative on the Governing Body of the I.L.O.; elected Chairman of the I.L.O. in Geneva on Dec. 1948.

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ni, Acharya J. B., M.A.—
his early life as education-
as professor in a Bihar
1912-17; joined Mahat-
ndhi in Champaran Satya-
1917; professor of Benares
University 1919; was in
of Gujerat Vidyapith 1922-
the General Secre-
Congress 1934-46;
prisonment was in
with 1942 August
of the Congress; President of the Congress 1946; resigned presidentship in 1947.

Kher, B. G.—born at Ratnagiri August 24, 1888; educated at Poona and Wilson College, Bombay; passed law examination in 1908; became solicitor 1918; toured Europe and America in 1912; became personal secretary to Mr. Justice Beaman; joined politics in 1922; conducted salt Satyagraha in 1932 and convicted under Ordinance in 1937; Ex-President, Harijan Sevak Sangh; Prime Minister of the Congress Government, Bombay 1937-39 and again Congress Premier from 1946.

Khanna, Mehrchand—b. 1897; educated at Peshawar; member Peshawar Municipal Committee 1922-27; member Frontier Legislative Council, 1932-37; Finance Minister, Frontier Congress Government 1937; was Finance Minister, Frontier Congress Government 1945-47.

Krishnan, Dr. K.S., F.R.S.—born December 4, 1998; joined the staff of Madras Christian College after completion of university education; joined as one of the research students of Sir C. V. Raman in 1923 and worked under him at the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, Calcutta; Appointed reader in Physics at Dacca University 1928; was appointed Mahendralal Sarcar Professor of Science Association 1933; was invited to the International Conference in Photo-Luminescence at Warsaw 1936; was elected fellow of the Royal Society of London, 1940; President, National Academy of Sciences, India, 1945 and 1946; University Professor of Physics, Allahabad University 1942-47; Director of National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi from 1948; President, Indian Science Congress 1940 and 1949.

Lohia, Dr. Rammonohar—b. 1910; educated at Berlin where he took Ph.D degree; Prominent member of the Indian Socialist Party; was Secretary, Foreign Department of the Congress; imprisoned two years for anti-war propaganda.

Mitter, Sir B. L., K.C.S.I.—born in May 1875 and educated at Presidency College, Scottish Churches College and University Law College, Calcutta; took B.L. degree in 1897 and practised as Vakil in Calcutta High Court; left for England and called to the Bar in 1904; was appointed Standing Counsel, Bengal 1920; Advocate-General of Bengal 1925-1928; Law Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council 1928-34; Member of the Bengal Executive Council 1934-37; Advocate-General of India 1937-45; Dewan of Baroda 1945-47; Led Indian delegation to the League of Nations in 1931 and 1933; received K.C.S.I., in 1932; Officiating Governor of Bengal 1947.

Masani, M. R. B.A., LL.B.—Born 1905; educated at Elphinstone College Bombay and London School of Economics, London; Advocate of Bombay High Court; a founder of the Congress Socialist Party; member, Bombay Corporation, 1935; Mayor of Bombay, 1943-44; Secretary, Public Rela-